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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION

CENTER FOR DRUG EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

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CARDIOVASCULAR AND RENAL DRUGS

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

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86th MEETING

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Thursday, October 22, 1998



The Advisory Committee met in the Masur and Auditorium, Building 10, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, at 9:00 a.m., Milton Packer, M.D., Chairperson, presiding.

MILTON PACKER, M.D., Chairperson

ROBERT CALIFF, M.D.

JOHN DIMARCO, M.D.

MARVIN KONSTAM, M.D.

JOANN LINDENFELD, M.D.

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COURT REPORTERS AND TRANSCRIBERS
1323 RHODE ISLAND AVENUE, N.W.
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20005

PRESENT:

PRESENT (Continued):

LEMUEL MOYE, M.D., Ph.D.

ILEANA PINA, M.D.

DAN RODEN, M.D.C.M.

UDHO THADANI, M.D.

JOAN C. SANDAERT, Executive Secretary

CONSULTANTS PRESENT:

LLOYD FISHER, Ph.D.

BARRY MASSIE, M.D.

INVITED GUESTS PRESENT:

JAY COHN, M.D.

DAVID DEMETS, Ph.D.

THOMAS FLEMING

BERTRAM PITT, M.D.

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PROCEEDINGS

(9:03 a.m.)

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: This is the 86th meeting of the Advisory Committee for the Division of Cardiac and Renal Drugs Products.

Today's topic is to discuss proposed guidelines in the clinical evaluation of drugs for the treatment of heart failure, and before beginning I'll have Joan Standaert review the conflict of interest for today's meeting.

Joan.

MS. STANDAERT: The following announcement addresses the issue of conflict of interest with regard to this meeting and is made a part of this record to preclude even the appearance of such at this meeting.

Since the issues to be discussed by the committee will not have a unique impact on any particular firm or product, but rather may have widespread implications with respect to entire classes of products, in accordance with 18 USC 208, waivers have been granted to each member and consultant

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participating in the committee meeting. 1 A copy of these waiver statements may be 2 obtained from the agency's Freedom of Information 3 Office, Room 12A30, Parklawn Building. 4 In the event that the discussions involve 5 any other products or firms not already on the agenda 6 for which an FDA participant has a financial interest, 7 the participants are aware of the need to exclude 8 themselves from such involvement, and their exclusion 9 will be noted for the record. 10 With respect to all other participants, we 11 ask in the interest of fairness that they address any 12 current and previous financial involvement with any 13 firm whose products they may wish to comment upon. 14 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Thank you very much, 15 Joan. 16 We will ask for public comment at this 17 time before we introduce today's meeting. Is there 18 any public comment? 19 (No response.) 20 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: There being no public 21 comment, we really are delighted today to have several 22

consultants and invited guests to discuss the proposed guidelines for heart failure, and these include Lloyd Fisher from the University of Washington; Barry Massie from the University of California, San Francisco; Jay Cohn from the University of Minnesota; Dave DeMets from the University of Wisconsin; Tom Fleming from the University of Washington; and Bert Pitt from the University of Michigan. Bert will be arriving a little bit later on this morning, as will Dan Roden, who will be arriving a little bit later this morning, as well.

The topic for today's discussion of proposed guidelines for the development of drugs for the treatment of heart failure, these guidelines have been in an evolutionary phase for quite some time. The dates which are on the proposed guidelines which have been distributed this morning do not represent a typographical error.

The first time that this committee met to discuss guidelines for the treatment of heart failure was, indeed, in December 7th, 1987, and this represents the second formal open meeting on these

guidelines in the last 15 years or so.

responsibility of drafting the first version of these guidelines in 1987 and took up the task of revising them for today's meeting. These guidelines for today's meeting have already been discussed at a number of internal meetings in closed sessions and represent the thinking of many, but not necessarily all, of those who are here today.

And I want to emphasize that these are draft and these are guidelines. Guidelines do not represent requirements. They represent a sense of what has worked in the past and, perhaps more importantly, what has not worked in the past.

Guidelines are obsolete from the day they are issued because the field is too dynamic to be frozen at one point in time, and to draft any document that accurately reflects future development, and I think that needs to be emphasized.

This is also a draft guideline in the sense that even this guideline will be worsed on after this meeting and will be revised in accordance with

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many of the suggestions we hear today from all of the members of the committee and all of the consultants and the invited guests, and we would encourage the audience to come to the microphone to participate in this discussion.

fact. intended to be is. in interactive. The only limit to this interaction is really the time available for this meeting. We could I'm not certain go on for days on these guidelines. that would be very fruitful, but the goal really is to have an open discussion and to hear various ways of approaching the development of drugs for the treatment of heart failure.

And the hope is that at some point in the future these guidelines may be issued in some formal fashion, although that may take some additional drafts and may take some additional time, and perhaps the next draft of this will have the number 2000 in front of it.

Ray, is that possible?

DR. LIPICKY: Yes.

(Laughter.)

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1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. The purpose of
2	today's meeting, the structure of today's meeting is
3	to discuss each of the sections of the document in a
4	relatively sequential fashion. The goal is not to
5	read the document. The goal is to really comment on
6	the document.
7	And we've asked specific individuals to
8	lead that discussion, comment on whether the document
	1

lead that discussion, comment on whether the document addresses the needs and the issues, and then to propose specific questions along the way and answer questions along the way that may arise with respect to each of these sections.

The first major section that we will be discussing this morning is the section on patient population. That's Section No. 2, and we've asked Joann Lindenfeld to lead off the general discussion on how the document addresses patient population and whether the present way the document is phrased addresses the needs of the field.

Joann.

DR. MOYE: Milt, can I just ask one question?

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CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.

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DR. MOYE: I was telling Ray that I was somewhat panicked on Monday because I hadn't received questions that we usually receive for these sessions.

Am I understanding this correctly in that today the committee does not have a formal set of questions to which it should respond?

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's correct. The reason is because there is, in fact, not necessarily a need to reach answers. The fact is that one can ask any questions one wants, and every member of the committee and all of the consultants can raise issues on any part of the document.

So, in fact, the goal here is not to have a finite series of questions and a finite series of answers because it would be very difficult to anticipate all of the questions that could be asked, nor would it be realistic to expect that all of the questions that we could think of could reasonably be answered in the time frame allotted.

DR. MOYE: Right. So if there is more than one defensible answer, is it the purpose of the

1	guideline to encompass that set of answers?
2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's correct.
3	DR. MOYE: And not just one solution?
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. So, for
5	example, if a certain dilemma can be reasonably
6	addressed by two or three options, it would be
7	appropriate for each of those options to be listed in
8	the guideline.
9	DR. FISHER: Milt, could I?
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd.
11	DR. FISHER: I had one thing I thought
12	might be usefully inserted in the introduction, and
13	since we're starting on Point 2
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.
15	DR. FISHER: and that was I've been
16	involved in a number of discussions where the best
17	study design seems to be something that goes a little
18	bit against what some sponsor has heard from the FDA,
19	and their usual reaction is, "Oh, well, the FDA said
20	they wanted this or are going to do it that way."
21	And I think it would be very useful to
22	have an introduction in the paragraph. This is

implied later when you say science changes, et cetera, et cetera, but to say the purpose is to get a good scientific evaluation. If the best scientific evaluation appears to conflict with these guidelines, we suggest discussions with the FDA, because it's also been my experience that when there is really valid reason for doing something and one talks to the FDA about it and they see the reason, that they will either have a very good counter or they will agree.

Granted these are only guidelines and people shouldn't take them that seriously anyway in some sense, but nevertheless people will, and I think it would be useful. In fact, in almost all of the guidelines that come out, it would be useful to have something like that.

DR. LIPICKY: Milton, I would second that from the vantage point that there needs to be emphasis that we gave in the beginning, that is, that this is not a proscription of how one should do things. It is a discussion of things that might be appropriate to think about.

And there may be ways of solving the

problems that aren't even specifically mentioned, and that sets the tone for today also, where I hope the interest is in whether or not the guidelines are written so that they communicate something and that there's some agreement with respect to what they communicate.

And so this first issue of make sure that the guidelines are not perceived as a proscription is really fairly important, I think.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And, in fact, as you will notice, these guidelines rarely -- in fact, if I recall, these guidelines never use the word "must," and there's been a concerted effort to avoid the word "should."

when, in fact, there is a strong feeling about something, that is evident usually by the language of "well, you can do this, but it usually won't work very well." That, I think, reflects the philosophy that both Lloyd and Ray have emphasized, which is if you can find a way of making something that hasn't worked work, it's a good thing to try to bring that forward and discuss it.

And frequently, as Lloyd has emphasized, 1 science, it's usually good drug if it's good 2 3 development. I really want to emphasize, I guess, one 4 thing that Lloyd implied, although I don't think he, 5 you know, specifically stated. There is a real 6 tendency on those who look at this document to read it 7 literally, and sometimes if the document -- and the 8 document rarely uses very specific language, but where 9 it does, I have heard those who are involved in 10 developing the drugs say, "Well, the document says 11 So we should do three months even 12 three months. though two months makes more sense." 13 Well, if two months makes more sense, you 14 should do two months and discuss why you're doing two 15 months. That philosophy applies throughout the entire 16 philosophy of the document. 17 DR. THADANI: Milt, a suggestion probably 18 should suffice, the fact that suggestion implies that 19 you can discuss it and everything else right --20 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right. 21 DR. THADANI: -- in the introduction. 22

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CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. We have a lot 1 to cover, and so let's move forward. 2 section is on patient population. 3 4 Joann. DR. LINDENFELD: Okay. There are four 5 things that characterize, I think, in this document 6 the patient population, and we'll just go through 7 those individually and bring up a point or two about 8 each: the cause, the severity, concomitant disorders, 9 and concomitant medications. 10 So we'll start with the cause, and these 11 are really relatively straightforward, although not 12 13 always cause and effect. I think the two issues under cause are 14 whether or not we want to say anything more about 15 ischemic heart disease, and that issue is whether or 16 not ischemic heart disease represents any ischemic 17 heart disease or critical ischemic heart disease that 18 comes up sometimes. 19 In other words, is the patient with an 20 ejection fraction of 25 percent and three 30 percent 21 lesions, coronary disease, or dilated cardiomyopathy? 22

1	That may not be an issue for this, but that's one
2	question.
3	PARTICIPANT: We can't hear you.
4	DR. LINDENFELD: I'm sorry. Is that
5	better? Okay. Thanks.
6	This is a little short even for me here.
7	The first issue is ischemic heart disease,
8	is whether or not if that should be defined more
9	than it is in the document that is, whether or not
10	any ischemic heart disease represents ischemic heart
11	disease or dilated cardiomyopathy.
12	That may be more specific than we wish to
13	be in this document.
14	Then I think although not specifically
15	cause, the issue of systolic versus diastolic
16	dysfunction is mentioned, but not precisely defined,
17	and as everyone knows, I think that's a difficult
18	issue, but should we have a precise definition of
19	diastolic dysfunction in terms of ejection fraction or
20	not?
21	Given that that's increasingly part of our
22	heart failure evaluations and a big part of the heart

failure population, we haven't specifically addressed 1 that issue in this document. 2 And, Milton, do you want me to just go 3 through each of these areas or stop? 4 That's good. Thanks. 5 Okay. Under characterization of severity, 6 the document states, "The most reasonable means of 7 grading severity is to quantify symptoms and then to 8 measure fatal and non-fatal events." Of course, the 9 latter is the latter, but the question here is whether 10 or not we wish to say much more about symptom 11 characterization. 12 As everyone is aware, there are several 13 ways to evaluate symptoms and several criteria, and 14 those vary somewhat in definition. We'll just have a 15 brief discussion whether or not we want to be more 16 specific in characterizing symptoms prospectively. 17 think, are fairly These, Ι 18 straightforward. The severity of heart failure, there 19 20 were three classifications of patients that might those who are hospitaliz'd with require study: 21

symptoms at rest, and those symptoms at rest would

include fluid overload resistant to diuretics, acute pulmonary edema, refractory symptoms with poor end organ perfusion requiring IV therapy.

Although these are not defined further, I think the intent would be that those are defined at the time of the study.

Ambulatory patients with symptoms on exertion, and then ambulatory patients with no symptoms or patients who have had symptoms.

In terms of concomitant disorders, this is also generally straightforward, but the document states, I think probably reasonably, that acute heart failure drugs should include patients with acute MI. There could be some discussion about whether or not that's a requirement.

And then something that's not discussed as much, that the study must be used in the population in whom an indication is sought, and I think as we're all aware, very often the population of patients studied with heart failure don't exactly represent the overall population, particularly in terms of age and gender. Whether or not we wish to be more specific about that

would be an issue for discussion.

And finally, concomitant medications. The document states that patients should be on established therapy for heart failure. The document does not give precise guidelines, and of course, that's a moving target. So that would be difficult.

But it also doesn't state what percentage of patients should be on established therapy, not exactly, but large percentage not, and then doesn't discuss international or regional differences, which again is probably not something that needs to be specified, but whether or not we want to discuss a little bit about guidelines for established therapy and how many of the patients should be on established therapy in the study.

That's the summary of that section.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. I'd like to open up a discussion on all of the topics that Joann has covered.

Let me first state that the types of patients evaluated in a clinical development program do not necessarily relate to whether the formulation

is intravenous or oral and do not necessarily relate to whether the uses proposed there are for short term or long term administration.

The patient population, although it might be reasonable to think that an IV drug is most likely to be used in hospitalized patients with symptoms at rest and an oral drug is more likely to be used in ambulatory patients with symptoms on exertion, the fact is that we are all aware that there are differences. That's not always true. IV drugs can be used in ambulatory patients with symptoms on exertion, and oral drugs can be used in hospitalized patients with symptoms at rest.

So these classes, these three classes of patients, are not intended to replace the traditional classification of acute versus chronic or IV versus oral. They are intended to define a patient population that is the target population for clinical use.

And despite the fact that we can make that classification very, very complicated, and in the past there have been separate ways that have been proposed

to evaluate mild to moderate heart failure from severe 1 2 heart failure, it's very difficult to distinguish moderate and severe heart failure. It's a continuum. 3 But it's relatively easy to identify these 4 5 three groups of patients. So let me emphasize that the grouping of patients, the identification of 6 patients to be studied is an important characteristic 7 of drug development which is related to, but not the 8 same as the decision as to whether one develops an 9 oral or IV drug for short or long term use. 10 Comments from any member of the committee 11 on this section of the document? 12 DR. THADANI: If I may start, one of the 13 difficulties sometimes is to be absolutely sure 14 whether the patient has coronary disease or not. 15 of us see patients who might have Q waves on the ECG, 16 and yet you do a coronary angiogram, and you don't 17 have CAD. 18 So I think short of doing angiograms on 19 everybody, which sometimes, you know, you don't want 20

to do it if EF is ten percent just to quantify the

severity of CAD because the patient may not be

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1	operable, so you would argue why bother doing it.
2	How much does it really make a difference
3	to outcome? That's one concern.
4	Another concern is if a patient has
5	cardiomyopathy, say, idiopathic or wild, and then you
6	do a coronary angiogram and they have 30 percent
7	lesions, and yet they could be prone to death because
8	of rupture. So it becomes a concomitant condition.
9	So I'd like some comments from Joann or
ro	yourself how you tackle that.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Well, let's try to
12	ask Joann since she was the discussant for this.
13	Joann, the document is fairly silent on
14	the vigor with which one needs to pursue the
15	whether the exact diagnosis. It simply says that the
16	diagnoses need to be characterized.
17	How important is it? Do the sponsors need
18	to, if someone says that they have coronary disease,
19	need to define that any further, or is the clinical
20	judgment of the investigator sufficient?
21	DR. LINDENFELD: I think that the clinical
22	judgment of the investigator, along with the usual

guidelines we've used, the presence of angina or Q waves on EKG, things like that, are probably enough for characterization.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob.

DR. CALIFF: Milton, I might comment that, you know, I would regard this as a classic example where the answer is "it depends"; that in general, if the goal of a therapeutic program is to develop a therapy for heart failure, in general, I would agree completely with Joann.

If someone developed a drug, let's say, that they thought really only worked in patients with ischemic heart disease or without ischemic heart disease, then a rational program would have a Phase 2 where everyone would have an angiogram, and maybe Phase 3 in an attempt to find out what would happen if the treatment was really used in practice, would emphasize careful evaluation clinically, but would not require an angiogram.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, Marv.

DR. KONSTAM: I basically agre with Rob.

I think, you know, we've seen places where based on

various studies the conclusion might be drawn that the drug works in ischemic heart disease and not in nonischemic or vice versa, and I think that if you wind up with that conclusion, but are left, when you go back and look at the study, with all it was was a check box of the investigator saying, "I think this is ischemic heart disease," then you're left with labeling that says, you know, this drug works if the clinician thinks it's ischemic heart disease, and I don't think that's very helpful.

So I think if you're going to wind up seeking an indication for, you know, a particular subcategory, then I think you're going to have to work a little harder to define that and what the criteria are for establishing that etiology.

DR. THADANI: I think it becomes very relevant even in some of the studies in which you are the principal author. You know, there's a subgroup analysis of ischemic versus nonischemic, and yet I'll give you an example of a patient recently. She has rormal coronary arteries, and she keeps on having chest pain, which really sounds like an unstable

angina pattern, and yet repeat angiogram still is normal.

So I think those are major dilemmas. So if you're saying for ischemic heart disease that you really should either have a documented MI by either ECG or enzymes or both and a coronary angiograph to label it; otherwise I think if you don't have a coronary angiogram or Q waves, even when a patient has history of chest pain, probably the unknown etiology might be the best way to label it.

The other issue, I think, perhaps that would be very relevant before you even define the cause of heart failure. I think the front statement should say one should know whether the patient has systolic or diastolic dysfunction because all of the trials are requiring basically ejection fraction one way or another.

So I think it's up front that you're dealing either with systolic or diastolic dysfunction because most of the things you're talking in therapy are all really so far related to systolic dysfunction.

There's little knowledge on the management of

in

diastolic dysfunction, at least from my reading, at 1 the present time. 2 So I think it should come right in the 3 front and then go to the causes. 4 Udho, let me take CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 5 that last comment and generalize it into a question to 6 the committee and to the consultants. 7 Section 2.3 makes some very specific 8 statements about the kind of experience which would be 9 desirable in an evaluation of a drug, and although it 10 disorders section is concomitant the says 11 medication, it, in fact, comprises the question, Udho, 12 that you just mentioned. 13 The statement says, "It is clear that the 14 drug development program should define efficacy and 15 safety of a new drug in the patient population in whom 16 an indication is being south. However, the sponsor 17 should also define the efficacy and safety in any 18 patients who are likely to receive the drug if it were 19 approved, even though the sponsor is not seeking a 20 claim for such patients." 21

Now, the rest of the paragraph gives a few

examples of this, but the intent of the wording here is to make clear that a drug development program is not only clinical relevant, but sufficiently comprehensive that if a drug were commercially available, the patients who are likely to receive it as a minimum would be able to receive it safely.

Now, two of the examples that are given here -- and these are not intended to be the only examples -- it would be perhaps a little bit inappropriate or inadequate for a drug being proposed for short term IV use to exclude patients with an acute myocardial infarction since such a substantial number of people might be candidates for short term IV use, have an acute myocardial infarction, and the safety of the drug in a patient with acute MI might be different than a patient who has stable or chronic heart failure that is acutely decompensated.

It would in a parallel fashion perhaps be inappropriate for a sponsor to define a patient population in chronic heart failure, all of whom are geting, say, -- everyone in the clinical development program was not on a conventional therapy, was not

even on any commonly used product that was considered to be very important in treatment of heart failure, and yet it's very likely that that drug would be used in patients with that background therapy, like an ACE inhibitor.

Now, the intent here is not to make this prohibitively comprehensive, but to simply state that the drug development program has to be sensitive to not only the indication being sought, but the potential for how the drug would be used in the community.

So my first question to all of the consultants is: is this appropriate?

The second question that I have to the committee and consultants is a common example of this phenomenon is the fact that patients with heart failure, as Udho has emphasized, in clinical trials commonly have an ejection fraction criteria, and only patients with an ejection fraction less than a certain arbitrary amount are included, therefore, including only patients with systolic dysfunction.

Yet when drugs are released in the

1 community, patients who have heart failure associated 2 with preserved systolic function may get the drug, in 3 fact, are likely to get the drug because I'm not 4 certain how often ejection fraction is measured in clinical practice. 5 6 Is there any obligation on the part of a sponsor to at least define the safety of a drug being 7 proposed for systolic dysfunction in patients with 8 diastolic dysfunction? And if the answer to that is 9 yes, how would one do that? 10 Well, we'll go all the way around, and 11 let's say Marv, Lloyd, Barry, Jay, Ileana, and then 12 13 Bob. DR. KONSTAM: First I just want to make a 14 I'd like to propose that we abandon the term 15 "systolic dysfunction" and "diastolic dysfunction" and 16 just substitute for it what we're talking about, which 17 is high -- normal ejection fraction or low ejection 18 fraction. 19 Okay? Does everybody agree with that? 20 DR. THADANI: It's really not true because 21 I agree with you in principle. Yet the trials have 22

1	arbitrarily cut out the EF either at 40 or 35. I
2	don't think there's any trial data in patients with
3	heart failure due to either severe systolic
4	dysfunction or mild in which the drugs that we're
5	talking about, life saving, have been shown with the
6	exception of acute MIs.
7	DR. KONSTAM: I'm just talking about
8	terminology, just terminology.
9	DR. THADANI: If you change that, I think
10	you run into the trouble that Milt is say. Unless
11	your trial is open to all comers, you still need
12	the how are you going to define normal? Is it 60
13	or 50?
14	DR. KONSTAM: However you're going to
15	define it, I'm just talking about terminology. I
16	would rather say something about ejection fraction
17	since that's what we're measuring rather than saying
18	diastolic dysfunction because, in fact, people with
19	heart failure probably all have diastolic dysfunction
20	even if their ejection fractions are low.
21	It's just terminology, is really all I'm

talking about.

Okay. I guess I would say I have a problem with, you know, the wording here and the concept that you're saying, Milton. I think in practice it's going to be very difficult to achieve what we're asking, and I think leaving it relatively vague is going to wind up not accomplishing very much.

And so what I mean, for example, is that in point of fact, historically and, I think, into the future drugs evaluated for acute hemodynamic intervention, as an example, are typically going to begin and maybe end with excluding patients with acute myocardial infarction from the study group.

Now, I think then what are you left with?

I think that I sympathize with the view that, you know, some clinicians are going to start using it in patients with MI, but I would say, first of all, that it's fairly onerous for the sponsors to anticipate all of that and to anticipate, for example, that, well, people are going to use it regardless of what the ejection fraction is or they're going to use it in patients with acute MI.

I think once you start going with that, I

don't know where you end in terms of the obligation of the sponsor to guess at what clinicians are going to do.

And then beyond that, I think even if you do guess, I'm not sure what you accomplish. I think if you develop a drug for acute therapy in stable or with exacerbation of heart failure in the absence of acute MI and then you say, "Well, I'm going to study some MI patients in the process," I don't know what you accomplish unless you go out and say, "Well, guess what. I'm going to study this in acute MIs and have a complete development program where you investigate the safety and efficacy of the drug in patients with acute MI."

Short of that, if you just have some MI patients in your population, I think you wind up not having accomplished the goal anyway. So my own view is to back off of this.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, Marv. I want to underscore the points that you've just made as we around the room because I think many will echo the same points.

But as we go around the room, let me just lead off a question here. Is there any reasonable guidance that can be provided here at all? And the reason I'm asking it is that I have a feeling that there are some examples that the committee would generally feel in the future is likely to be sufficiently important that they might even reject a drug for a specific indication because a certain patient population wasn't studied.

In other words, the lack of data in acute MI or the lack of data on concomitant meds. or lack of data in diastolic -- I'm sorry -- preserved ejection fraction -- forgive me -- is this ever -- is this always going to be something that can be handled in labeling, that is to say these data are missing, or would the omission of such data ever be of sufficient concern that one could even say this is a silly application? It studies no one in clinical practice whom a physician will ever see.

In other words, is there a reason -- we could take this out complete, but the question that arises is: is there an example where the principle is

sufficiently important that you would want to send a signal that it's a principle that's important, although the execution of the principle may be difficult to carry through?

DR. KONSTAM: Well, I think there is an example that I recall. We looked at a drug that was a vasodilator for treatment of acute hypertension, if I remember correctly, and the point came out in the discussion that there was no investigation of the safety of the agent with concomitant beta blocker use, and it was anticipated that, in fact, since the drug causes reflex tachycardia, it would be very common to use beta blockers, and we're going to be in big trouble.

Now, there was an example, I think, where the panel said, you know, there isn't actually going to be a population in reality where you've proven that the drug is safe and effective because the vast majority are going to be receiving a drug that you haven't looked at.

I think that that might be the general point, that when the FDA or the advisory panel

encounters something like that, it's going to be very negative about approving the drug.

I think that's different from anticipating sort of a clinician creep in the application of the agent, such as saying that you're going to approve a drug in exacerbation of heart failure, but that's going to creep into the acute MI setting.

I think maybe that's the difference between the two circumstances.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I am not certain I actually understand the difference between one and two because one could easily imagine, for example, if someone did a clinical study in patients all of whom were under the age of 60, just another example of the kinds of things that one -- I mean, it may be an absurd example, but maybe not necessarily, but really with the recognition that two thirds of patients with heart failure are over 60.

Now, that might be an example in your second category that's totally unacceptable, but one cou'd imagine all sorts of examples in which the distinction between your first and second example

isn't all that clear cut.

DR. KONSTAM: I agree. It's not absolute.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. We'll try to take the original order. I just wanted to get this concept in play because there aren't too many controversial aspects of Section 2, but this is worthy of discussion.

Lloyd.

DR. FISHER: Yeah, this concept, of course, also appears multiple places throughout the document, and I had some troubles with it both philosophically, ethically, and practically.

We've always expected some additional data, for example, organ dysfunction if the organ relates to metabolism or elimination, experience with concomitant therapies that will occur, and so on.

In safety you talk about open label extensions as not being much use because they're in control, which makes me think that you have in mind controlled collection of data in these people. Is that correct or incorrect, or is that open to discussion?

If it's controlled, then you're essentially beginning to go for the indication. My assumption actually is if this is done, it will be uncontrolled, and then you have tremendous interpretation problems.

You're probably moving into higher risked populations so that if you pull all of the adverse event data, you're going to get a misleading profile for the clinician actually. So then the natural thing to do is to break the adverse event profile out into those who are in the indication that you have for the drug and those that you have for these other classes, and I wonder if this doesn't implicitly begin to apply FDA maybe not approval, but certainly acceptance of the fact that it will be used widely.

And to me there's a philosophical issue here about how the FDA wants to go about this, as to whether this does imply that, yes, we know you're going to use it here. We don't have the data. Better to give you a little safety data for this indication where comparative safety and efficacy is not evaluated, and I have questions as to whether that's

a good thing to do to that extent.

which is commonplace in labeling that we see all the time is a paragraph in labeling that goes something like this. "This drug has been used safely in combination with the following 117 medications," and the whole list follows, even though the exposure in each one of those examples could have been a very limited number of patients, and it's almost always uncontrolled.

So it's difficult. This is a general principle not only for heart failure development, but for drug development in general.

Barry.

DR. MASSIE: Yeah. I tend to agree with a lot of what's been said, particularly a lot of what Lloyd just said.

I mean, it is confusing. I don't think that we can answer these questions, but I have, I think, as you do, a lingering concern particularly with the acute MI setting, which is where a large proportion of the use of many drugs that we approve

for acute exacerbations of heart failure are used.

But then we hit the enigma that Lloyd just brought up. Do we insist on a controlled study in that group or do we just insist on some experience, that if it was awful enough would point attention, but otherwise we'll not know how to assess it without a control group?

And I really don't have an answer for that, but I think that as you talk in the later documents or later in the document you talk about numbers of patients exposed. It would seem to me that those numbers have inflated compared to the packages that we've seen in the past, particularly in the acute heart failure arena, and that does leave room for a substantial number of patients exposed to open label therapy in some of these areas.

Difficult as it may be to evaluate that data, I think we learn some important things, and so I would say the way you'd handle that acute MI problem would be to say, yes, you know it's going to be used in acute MI. We know it's going to be us d in acute MI. Get some exposure in acute MI as part of your

1,500 patients you need.

One other point I wanted to make that gets back to the preserved systolic function. I think that that's going to have to be labeling because you can't really force people to study an entity they don't think is going to work just because somebody might use it, say digoxin as a prime example of where you wouldn't want to probably do a study with high EFs.

Do you have to? I don't think so, but we haven't done such a good job in labeling these drugs to make that clear. You know, some of these approvals for chronic heart failure have left out the ejection fraction in the indication.

So I think that's where we ought to handle that aspect. Make it clear up front who has been studied and who it's indicated for and not assume it's all heart failure.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah. Well, let me pause for a second and ask both Ray and Bob. The trend these days has been to describe the indication of a drug for heart failure as for heart failure, and depending on if it's short term or IV or oral, but

1 with only one exception I can think of, the indication 2 does not mention the ejection fraction. Actually two 3 indications that I can think of the drug does not mention, the indication section does not mention the 4 ventricular function. 5 The exceptions that I can think of is the 6 7 use of analopril in asymptomatic patients with LV 8 dysfunction. It actually says that, and in the 9 carvatelol labeling it says in patients with an 10 ischemic or nonischemic cardiomyopathy, the 11 implication being systolic dysfunction, but everything else is labeled for heart failure even though all of 12 the data are in patients with low ejection fractions. 13 Is there a desire to make that more 14 specific in future drug development? 15 16 Ray. 17 DR. LIPICKY: Well, I think you get two not on my part. Now it's up to Dr. Temple. 18 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 19 20 DR. TEMPLE: I think the discussion has been mixing multiple concepts. Let me say what I 21

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mean.

We have a general recent, ten-year, say, encouragement of sponsors to include a wide range of patients in their trials, that is, not to exclude people over 65 reflexly, not to exclude concomitant therapy, not to leave out diabetics, et cetera.

The expectation though is not that you're going to do separate studies in each of those subpopulations. It's that there's going to be enough of them so that you can look across your studies and make some reasonable assessment of whether there's a big difference between one group and another.

Of course, you can't randomize to that characteristic. So you're somewhat limited.

You're partly discussing that, and you're also partly discussing specific subsets of heart failure patients who might really be expected to respond differently and who may or may not deserve specific attention.

You wouldn't carry out a trial in heart failure and just include a small number of people with acute MIs. You'd pull them out and do a separate study, I think. I can't imagine why you'd take the

risk of mixing them and confusing the situation.

So I think this guidance document should reach a conclusion about whether a drug for heart failure really ought to be studied in people with acute MI or at least whether that ought to be considered, and the sponsor should explain why the sponsor decided not to or to as a separate condition.

similarly, the guidance document ought to address the question of whether people with normal ejection fraction heart failure ought to be a study population that is examined, and as Barry just said, you might reach a different conclusion for an ionotrope and for a vasodilator.

so I think that's up for discussion. My own view is that, as everybody has learned that heart failure needs to be thought of in at least two classifications, the reason to distinguish the two groups and study both at least a little becomes reasonable.

But, for example, if you didn't expect much in high ejection fraction patients, it might be that a short term clinical pharmacology type study

measuring cardiac output or other things might be enough to say there's no point in proceeding further.

I mean, you know, you have to think about that and tell us whether you think that's right. You wouldn't necessarily have to do a full bore development program on something that isn't very probable, but I would argue that the major categories probably ought to be discussed. That seems to me one of the things the guidelines should address.

But it's very important, I think, to distinguish between specific groups that ought to be studied in a formal and rigorous way and just a more general urging to don't exclude people, and if you don't exclude people, you'll get plenty of diabetics and plenty of hypertensives and plenty of all those things, and you can look at the subsets and see if there's anything grossly stunning.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob, just a specific question. Is there -- I guess Ray has answered this in the negative. The question is whether you'd feel differently. Would future labeling for drug be if only patients with low ejection fractions were studied

1 -- reflect the fact that the indication is only for 2 patients with low ejection fractions as opposed to for heart failure? 3 4 DR. TEMPLE: No, I think it should make I think, in fact, virtually all 5 that distinction. trials have included mostly low ejection fraction 6 7 patients, but I don't actually know that, and I'm not sure it was always looked at. 8 9 But I would think if the drug is not likely to be or known not to be useful in one subset, 10 that seems quite reasonable. 11 One of the things that I would think would 12 be troublesome would be too much stress on the 13 14 etiology of the disease because it seems to me it's 15 the functionality of the disease that's important, not how you got there. That's another 16 17 question. DR. LIPICKY: But from what we have seen 18 in results, the etiology of the disease seems to 19 20 predict outcome variables as a function of treatment accurately than whether there's preserved 21

ventricular function or not preserved ventricular

1	function.
2	DR. TEMPLE: Is that so?
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: How's that?
4	DR. TEMPLE: Is that so?
5	DR. LIPICKY: In ischemic and nonischemic
6	heart disease, does that not
7	DR. TEMPLE: Not really. I don't know of
8	any analysis that showed that.
9	DR. LIPICKY: With good ejection faction
10	and poor ejection faction?
11	DR. MASSIE: Well, you can't comment on
12	the good or poor because there's no data on poor. So
13	you can't say that anything has been better or worse
14	than that discrimination because we only have one side
15	of the coin there.
16	And I guess what we used to think is the
17	discrimination between ischemic and nonischemic
18	doesn't seem to be panning out as much as it used to
19	be when we had beta blockers that only had positive
20	trials in nonischemic types of patients. That was, I
21	think, the biggest group that we've ever studied where

there seemed to be that discordance.

2 has disappeared. 3 Jay. 4 DR. TEMPLE: One last comment. Etiology 5 obviously could make a huge difference to such things as survival. So you would be crazy if you didn't try 6 7 to balance those things in a large outcome trial. 8 But whether symptoms of heart failure get 9 better may or may not be related to etiology. It 10 seems a little unlikely that it would relate to etiology as opposed to a functional measure. 11 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay and then Bert. 12 No, I think the problem that 13 DR. COHN: we're going to be in here throughout the day is the 14 distinction of the disease as a symptom disease in 15 which there are three classes of patients based upon 16 symptoms, and now our concern is how do you control 17 18 physicians using drugs to treat symptoms when, fact, all of the drugs that we develop to treat so-19 called heart failure really are aimed at specific 20

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But that discordance

And it seems to me imprudent to demand

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mechanisms of the disease.

that a mechanistic or a drug with a known mechanism be studied in patients who do not have that mechanism to treat. If you had a diuretic and you were using that to treat heart failure, would you need to study it in patients who do not have congestion to show that it is safe, or would you demand that the drug be marketed for treatment of congestion in heart failure? And that allows you to use it in a targeted population.

If you had a drug which lowered LDL and you decided you wanted to demonstrate that patients who had an elevated LDL and coronary disease if taking this drug will have a reduced incidence of morbid events and mortality in heart failure, would you need to study that drug in patients who do not have an elevated LDL and who do not have coronary disease?

I think you would all agree it would be foolish to do that because that's not the patient targeted population.

So it seems to me the same thing could be said about ventricular dysfunction. If you have a drug whose target is to reduce the remodeling process in the left ventricle and make the chamber smaller, it

would be imprudent to use that drug in patients who do not have a dilated ventricle and a low ejection fraction.

Now, would we have to study that drug in that population with a normal ejection fraction because some physician in practice will use this drug to treat heart failure with a normal ejection fraction?

I would say no. I think the labeling could reflect exactly the indication for the therapy, and it would not be indicated for heart failure. It would be indicated for a dilated ventricle with symptoms of heart failure.

Now, maybe that's asking the practicing community to be more sophisticated, but it seems to me that's the direction we should be going in, and this document as it's written tends to exclude thoughtful mechanistic insight into the disease that we're trying to treat, and I don't think we should discourage that process within the FDA or in the practice community, and we should probably try to move the ractice community more toward understanding the sites of

action of the drugs that they're using in this very complicated syndrome.

The more we talk about heart failure and try to find a treatment for heart failure, the more trouble we're going to get into because it is a very heterogeneous syndrome, and the drugs that we use are very diverse in their sites of action.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay, just the way to get from A to B is, in act, to recommend to the agency that their indications be made more specific and that their specific mention of patients who have not been studied be noted specifically.

DR. COHN: Absolutely.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And so that the best way to deal with this dilemma is to provide appropriate direction to physicians as to who was studied, who it was effective in, who was not studied, and so the burden now falls on the physician as opposed to the pharmaceutical manufacturer.

But that could only happen if Ray's answers to the question that we posed to me were that he would contemplate making it more specific because

right now it's been pretty general.

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DR. LIPICKY: But I guess convince me some more. In practice, there are two ways of going about it. One is you take the inclusion/exclusion criteria written in the protocols, which generally are bias and prejudice that comes from investigators and the companies who are developing things, which may or may not be entirely consistent with my model of what is important in heart failure, but that is how the patients were selected so that you're being entirely empirical, which would then probably also make me need to account for the color of hair, the color of eyes, racial, you know, ethnic background.

I don't know that none of those things are important. So then that's what labeling would be or, alternatively, you accept somebody's model for what is important in heart failure and to then abstract from on that model dependent basis those things that were in the inclusion/exclusion criteria that I know are important and to include those in the indications.

So I guess I gave a negative answer because I would not be uncomfortable with the notion

I'm going to test drug versus placebo, and you draw conclusions, and then the indication is heart failure, and that most of the notions about etiologically specific outcomes as a function of therapy, in fact, come from subgroup analyses, and when you get a large enough bunch of data together, it turns out most of those suspicions turn out not to be right.

So that I would argue against having the ability to do subgroup analyses because they usually confuse rather than straighten out. So I think I need some convincing that I know enough to be able to say, yeah, I only know this works in people with low ejection fraction, and that I would know for sure that people with normal ejection fraction would not be positively affected or might be adversely affected.

I have not seen data of that nature, but maybe someone knows that that's already well demonstrated.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob.

DR. TEMPLE: I think one of the goals of this guideline should be to identify those

characteristics that Ray hasn't seen yet that define 1 2 populations that ought to be studied separately or considered as potential separable populations. 3 For example, if it's not reasonable in the 4 5 view of the people working on the guideline to think that people with low ejection fractions and people 6 7 with high ejection fractions would respond the same 8 way to an ionotrope, then at least when you're 9 studying an ionotrope it becomes important to distinguish the populations. 10 I can imagine labeling that would say this 11 drug was not studied in people with normal ejection 12 13 fraction because there was no reason to think it would work in those people. You might do that. 14 But as I hear this, there are several 15 categories of people who might be distinguished. 16 example, everyone seems to think that people with an 17 acute MI are a separate enough group that they ought 18 to be looked at. As Jay pointed --19 No, not everyone. DR. CALIFF: 20 You just throw them in the 21 DR. TEMPLE: regular study? 22

Well, I --DR. CALIFF: 1 Well, okay. That strikes me 2 DR. TEMPLE: 3 as incautious and a bad idea, but, you know, we can talk about it. 4 But whether or not you would put them in 5 6 the same study or not, enough people think they're a 7 different group that you ought to think about them. Similarly, high and low ejection fraction 8 9 might be very important for some categories of drugs. Maybe it's not so important for a vasodilator. 10 don't know, but those are the sorts of questions that 11 I would think should be addressed. 12 13 If there were other important categories that deserve special thought or a special look, 14 whether that's resolved by specific studies or by 15 labeling is not the most important question. 16 This document should identify those. 17 DR. COHN: I guess the question though is 18 19 whether one could gain approval of a drug studied in a very targeted population that is clearly definable, 20 but is not generalizable, and if the labeling could so 21

indicate that the drug is clearly effective in that

targeted population and hasn't been studied in a wider 1 Is that an approvable drug or not? population. 2 Potentially, but there are DR. TEMPLE: 3 two questions that have to be asked. 4 We've been burned, we think, lately by 5 attempts to restrict drugs to particular populations 6 because people don't follow the advice. Where there's 7 a safety concern associated with that, we might well 8 argue -- it would depend on how wonderful the drug 9 was, of course -- we might well argue that more 10 information is needed before approval, but in other 11 circumstances we might say we'll let labeling try to 12 do this, but --13 potentially Ιt is LIPICKY: DR. 14 approvable. 15 It sort of DR. TEMPLE: Yeah, it is. 16 on what it is, but we're increasingly depends 17 skeptical about the ability of labeling to direct 18 So if there's a real safety concern about 19 wasn't studied in a it something 20 because subpopulation, we might be worried about hat. 21

DR. COHN: Well, I guess that that then

falls on the role of the FDA in terms of the practice community because if, indeed, you need to demonstrate safety in a large population of patients who don't fall into the category where the drug would be used -- a patient with a normal LDL in whom you don't want to study an LDL lowering drug -- do you have to show that it's safe in that population because physicians are liable not to measure LDL and, therefore, use the drug, or can you accept the restricted labeling that this drug hasn't been studied in people with normal LDL?

DR. TEMPLE: There is no single answer,

DR. TEMPLE: There is no single answer,

Jay, but take the acute MI situation. I think you

have a much better case for arguing in that setting

that there ought to be some experience if you think

it's likely the drug is going to be used there.

DR. COHN: Well, I think that raises the issue about ischemia and the safety, and this is a patient population that has a high incidence of ischemia. You'd like to know that the drug is safe in 'schemia. So I think --

DR. TEMPLE: I think each case is

different. They're not going to all fit in the same box.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob?

DR. CALIFF: I want to comment on two issues, both of which have been raised, and the first is I would like to take the radical position for the sake of discussion on a myocardial infarction.

You know, as a CCU director for a long time and for some reason having a spate of relatives with acute heart failure recently and talking to doctors trying to figure out what in the heck to do with these people, I think we've got a real problem.

This is the national public health epidemic, is acute heart failure, and it's true that if you follow patients in a heart failure clinic and look at your population admitted, it's a somewhat discrete population, but if you take the inception point as the emergency department or the CCU, which is where the decisions are really made, you do not know in the vast majority of patients with myocardial necrosis or acute ischemia whether they really have ischemia or myocardial necrosis at the time you have

to make the decision about which drugs you're going to use.

And so I think when we do studies and say we're going to separate acute MI from not acute MI as an entry criterion, we're not studying the population in the context in which the drug is going to be used, and the results of therapy, I think, are almost completely unknown by the practicing population.

It's even more compounded by the fact that we don't know how to define acute MI anymore. Now that we have markers of myocardial necrosis that are much more sensitive, we're finding the majority of people with acute necrosis do not have FT segment elevation on the electrocardiogram. There is not anywhere near complete overlap between CKMB The treponeme measurements treponeme measurements. are prognostically much more valuable than the CKMB measurements, and I think the sort of mythical thinking that you can somehow know when you make the decision which category the patient is in when we have a national epidemic of an aging population many of whom by their demographic characteristics are likely

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION

CENTER FOR DRUG EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

CARDIOVASCULAR AND RENAL DRUGS

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

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86th MEETING

Thursday, October 22, 1998

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The Advisory Committee met in the Masur Auditorium, Building 10, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, at 9:00 a.m., Milton Packer, M.D., Chairperson, presiding.

PRESENT:

MILTON PACKER, M.D., Chairperson

ROBERT CALIFF, M.D.

JOHN DIMARCO, M.D.

MARVIN KONSTAM, M.D.

JOANN LINDENFELD, M.D.

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to have coronary disease is -- just for radical purposes I'd say it would be irresponsible in my opinion to try to totally separate those two things.

Now, I agree that in retrospect trying to look at who had positive enzymes and who didn't is about the closest that you can come, but to do these sort of puristic studies, put drugs on the market in an increasingly confused clinical environment where acute decisions need to be made with probably the largest growing national epidemic, public health problem, just doesn't seem to me to make a lot of sense.

The second issue, which I think is what is sort of related to that and what a lot of people have brought up, is how in today's environment do we really define safe and effective. Is safe and effective defined as a theoretical concept of what possibly could happen if doctors really always knew what they were doing? In which case you could label a drug and put it out there and people could use it as labeled and it would be fine, or should there be some common sense, not the extreme example that Jay brought up of,

you know, you've got a normal person and you have to 1 2 prove the drug doesn't do harm in them? 3 But, you know, everyone who develops a drug spends countless hours of marketing people and 4 5 everyone else thinking about who really is going to get treated. In my experience it's rarely exactly the 6 7 population that would have been labeled when the 8 calculations are made about the profitability and the income stream generated from the high cost of R&D. 9 10 And Ι think, you know. philosophical issue that's really being discussed here 11 is how do we really define safe and effective. 12 And the last sort of question is: what do 13 we really learn from mebefrodil? It was very safe and 14 effective in the population studied, in the studies 15 that were done. 16 Are there generalizable lessons from that 17 which should be thought about in relation to this 18 issue before us today? 19 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me see if I --20 this topic has the potential of being all consuming 21 22 and could take a whole day or many days, and let me just say that I think that in defense of Jay, I think the example that he put forward was intentionally absurd because the idea is not to evaluate the efficacy and safety of drugs in the patient population diametrically opposite the one for an indication being pursued. It is to determine whether there is any rationale to determining any experience in a patient population who is extremely likely to get the drug if it were to be approved.

And I think that everyone who has spoken in the last hour on this issue has emphasized the fact that this is a principle that needs to be paid attention to, but given the incredible complexity of the issue, it is very difficult to know how to craft wording to provide specific guidance.

And I know that Bob has suggested that future version of this document should attempt to do so, and I guess since I'm likely to be involved in those future versions, I'm a little bit nervous as to what philosophical approach should be taken to define an area which people intuitively feel should be defined, but have trouble defining.

DR. TEMPLE: Well, I think you can do it, 1 2 and I think most of the comments that people have made 3 suggest how you might. For example, my response to Rob's comment is that the committee might think that 4 5 any drug intended for the treatment of heart failure 6 ought to be studied at least to a degree in an acute 7 ischemic setting, as well as whatever other setting 8 they're looking at. Okay. You're doing most of your trials in 9 10 people with chronic heart failure, but there ought to be some attention to the acute situation. 11 I'm not endorsing or not endorsing it, but 12 I think that's the thrust of what he said. 13 Well, you could say that. I really don't 14 believe you'd do it in the same trial because I think 15 the endpoints would be different and the ability to 16 exercise would be different, but that's a nicety that 17 18 you could get to later. But the general principle that people with 19 active ischemic heart disease who also have symptoms 20 of heart failure ought to be included in trials is one 21 22 that the committee could agree to.

1	Similarly, it could agree to the idea that
2	any therapy ought to be thought of for its potential
3	usefulness in people with and without abnormal
4	ejection fraction. A conclusion might be that it's
5	stupid to study it in one of those groups because the
6	mechanism is inappropriate, but that's okay. It will
7	have been thought of, and the labeling would point out
8	that it doesn't make any sense to use it in those
9	people or something like that.
10	I think you can tease these issues out,
11	and it would be helpful if you did.
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Nearly
13	everyone wants to say something, and we clearly need
14	to reach partial closure here.
15	Ray.
16	DR. LIPICKY: Well, just very short. I
17	think the one extreme that was asked about was if you
18	had a very restricted population that was studied, was
19	that potentially approvable, and the answer was yes,
20	with some caveats.
21	And I think on the other extreme, if there

was only people who were said to have congestive heart

failure and they went the whole gamut and there was a clear benefit, ignoring what it is that's being measured, that is also potentially approvable.

These things we're talking about are things that need to be thought about during the design and conduct of the trial and are reasonable to analyze and can generate hypotheses with respect to what other things should be done, but I don't think any of them are of the nature of if you do this it's okay and if you don't do that it is not okay, because I can conceive of circumstances where sort of anything would be okay, but these, in fact, are the variables that affect the decisions.

The thing that's missing from the section is the statement like that. It isn't like what I'm saying, but you know, there's no bottom line, and I don't think there should be. I don't think it should say if you don't study people with infarcts, don't bother us, or if you don't study people with chronic congestive heart failure for long periods, don't bother us.

It ought to say these are the

considerations.

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CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. I've been ignoring a few people I just want to get. I actually think we are reaching closure on this based on what Ray just summarized.

Tom and Bert and we'll take a few additional comments, Lem, and see what we can do about reaching closure. I had set aside about an hour for this discussion, and we're getting there.

Tom.

DR. FLEMING: Just a general philosophical approach.

I think in general we should be striving toward minimizing the differences between the inclusiveness of eligibility criteria, our our labeling, and our actual use in clinical practice, and it may well be that understanding of mechanisms can give us some insights about settings in which we would anticipate clinical efficacy or where we may be concerned about safety, and that can well guide what we would anticipate a labeling to be.

It's important then in the clinical trial

that we are inclusive, that we would then include with the eligibility criteria those folks that we would intend to be included in the labeling, and that's where I think the statement in 116 and 117 is really key.

It would trouble me, just to go on though, if we anticipated clinical use to be much broader than labeling. Certainly there could be some broader, but if it were substantially broader and we were restricting our labeling based on understanding of mechanisms and concern about efficacy and safety outside of that, it would trouble me if we had a substantial experience.

So the principle as I would see it is we should minimize the difference between the inclusiveness of the eligibility, the labeling, and the clinical use. They should be similar.

The second point --

in order to accomplish that very honorable goal requires two types of events or actually an agreement amongst three parties. One is the sponsor; second is

the agency; third is the practicing physician.

We actually are not entirely capable of influencing the third party. Maybe we should, but we're not.

DR. FLEMING: Well, there are two major steps here. One is how broad should the labeling be, and I'm arguing it should be, in fact, as broad as possible subject to our thought of where this agent could be useful in clinical practice.

Now, if, however, we are broad in our labeling, then our clinical trial should be done with eligibility criteria that are inclusive, that are as inclusive as we would anticipate our labeling indication to be.

The second point that is somewhat unrelated, but key, that's noted in Lines 122 to 124 here that I think is a point that I want to strongly agree with here is that we need to evaluate the intervention is a real world setting, and the manner in which we expect it to be used in clinical practice, and if there are concomitant meds. that are routinely given and we anticipate our agent to be given in

1 addition to those concomitant meds., then the trial 2 should be designed so that the agent is evaluated in the context of the use of those concomitant meds. 3 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Bert, I think 4 5 you've had your hand up, and then we'll try to close it. 6 7 I think I agree with Ray's 8 formulation that there's not going to be an answer to 9 this, that it could be a narrow or broad approach depending upon your view of the drug and the 10 11 mechanism. I just have one nervousness that if we use 12 the wording as currently written here and just 13 14 sprinkle a few MIs in, then -- I think Lloyd touched on this very nicely -- is we're not going to really be 15 able to say very much about it. It's going to give 16 17 you maybe a false assurance about the safety of this 18 drug. So I think you have to be very, very 19 20 careful, and it will depend upon the mechanism, depending upon the drug you're going to do, and we're 21

talking here in a vacuum really and in generalities

1 where really each case is going to be a very different case depending upon what you're talking about. 2 The difficulty is to write a paragraph 3 4 that encompasses all of these things, and I think I was very happy the way Ray formulated this in the end, 5 his last statements, because it is allowing us a very 6 7 broad approach. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 8 Okay. Ileana and then Lem. 9 I want to turn it around a 10 DR. PINA: little bit toward the sponsor to say that it would 11 perhaps be to the benefit of the sponsor if the drug 12 were going to be used in acute MI to study it in that 13 indication perhaps in a parallel trial as opposed to 14 all inclusive in one trial. 15 I'm also concerned that the sponsor could 16 17 be worried about safety in that population, and that it may be reasonable to have a pilot study to test it 18 in that population, and then you can amplify your 19 20 entry criteria. 21 So that's just another way of looking at

the same issue.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lem.

DR. MOYE: Ileana's recommendation for a pilot study is a good one.

Something else that you might consider, if you have two populations, one is a well targeted in whom you believe the drug works, but is safe and effective and is, in fact, the population for indication and the population on which you size your trial and do efficacy and so forth.

The second population is a population in which you have no a priori of harm, but you need to have some assurance that the drug is not going to be harmful in a population in which the drug perhaps will not be generally indicated, but would be used, you might consider studying them in a controlled sense.

I mean, Lloyd suggested that, and very helpfully said that, in fact, many of these patients are considered in an uncontrolled or are included in an uncontrolled fashion, and Marv pointed out the difficulty with trying to interpret data from them.

Well, why not bring them in in a controlled fashion, but differentiate the parameters

you use to judge safety? For example, in the trial in which you're looking at the indicated population, of course, the trial is sized for 15, 20, 25 percent efficacy, but why not for this second population just size it for a stronger signal?

You need far fewer patients in order to be assured that you really don't have any real problem with harm, and that could still be done in a controlled setting. You could still draw reasonable epidemiological conclusions from that.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. We're going to have a few closing comments. Udho, Rob.

DR. THADANI: I think in the days of evidence based medicine, unless you open the inclusion criteria broad, I think you should in the labeling say which population was studied.

Drugs are not cheap. For example, take ACE inhibitors or vasodilators. I know Bob is saying probably safe in all patients. It may be safe, but it may do nothing for the patient. If the EF is about 40 in patients with heart failure, I've not s an any data in any trials to show that it improves survival,

reduces hospitalization in that group.

So are we going to tell all of the patients who have EFs of 45, 50 that they should be all on the drug? We may not be doing anything. I think they're already on follow-up therapy.

So if those data are not available, I think you should be in the label these patients, and the reason drug studies are designed to include very low EFs or below 40, because then your sample size goes smaller and you can show efficacy, and if you're not going to show any benefit, why give the drug?

So I think my feeling would be in the days of evidence based medicine, it should clearly specified.

At the moment hospital charts are being audited, and if somebody's EF is 30, why did not you use Drug A or B because that's not a good practice of medicine? But physicians will do what they will, and I think if there is no data, then there should be controlled trials in that population.

I give you an example of the NIH study going at the moment to see patients on ACE inhibitors

above EF of 40 percent in eight, 9,000 patients to see 1 if it does any good or bad. So I think we should do 2 3 that. If you're going to allow just routine use, 4 extension of the trial to everybody, I think it might 5 be not doing service to the public. 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob. 7 8 DR. CALIFF: Go ahead. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Let me --9 DR. COHN: Can I just make one comment? 10 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. 11 DR. COHN: Just to bring closure to this, 12 you know, the fact that inclusiveness of patients in 13 a trial does not necessarily mean that labeling should 14 I think that's actually a terrible be inclusive. 15 misperception because, I mean, just think about an old 16 example. 17 If you put in thousands of people with 18 fever and give them penicillin and demonstrate that 19 there's a reduction of fever, it really shouldn't lead 20 labeling that fever should be treat'd with 21

penicillin. We're a little more sophisticated.

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1	And I just don't think that I just
2	think we have to become much more specific in our
3	labeling. Otherwise we're going to just perpetuate
4	this idea that everybody responds the same to a drug.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That needs to be done
6	in a well thought out fashion as part of the original
7	developmental plan as opposed to in a subgroup
8	analytical approach after the trial has been
9	completed.
10	DR. COHN: Yeah, and that gets back to
11	doing a targeted population.
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, that's fine. I
13	just want to make sure that the misconception was not
14	conveyed that one could go back, try to find some
15	population that seemed to respond to it and pursue a
16	labeling for it.
17	DR. COHN: No, it's hypothesis generating.
18	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That would be
19	hypothesis
20	DR. COHN: when you put a large
21	pop [.] lation in.
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob.

DR. TEMPLE: I mean, people presumably go about this in an orderly way. You don't do your 10,000 patient mortality trial right off the bat. First you look to see in various subpopulations whether you're getting the kinds of pharmacologic effects that make you optimistic.

So you do all of that kind of stuff. You perfectly well can look at subgroups, even unplanned ones, in early studies, and then you go about it.

I mean there's a dichotomy being drawn that seems to me somewhat wrong. Of course you don't assume that any mechanism works in any population, and to some extent what I hear most people saying is you should examine whether the -- you should consider the intelligent distinctions between patient populations and either not study some of them because it doesn't make sense or explore whether the drug works as you think in important distinctions.

Getting wrapped up in whether a drug could be approved for a narrow population or a broad population isn't really the main issue because, as Ray said, either is possible, but what I think you want in

the guidance is intelligent ways to think about these problems.

And Jay has certainly put his finger on it. You want to use distinctions that, as best you understand things, make sense now with the full knowledge that what you understand will change over time, but you do the best you can, and you make the distinctions that are now known to be sensible like between people who are in the middle of an ischemic event and people who are not.

We all seem to think that's a sensible distinction, and another sensible distinction at least for many drugs is whether a person has a normal ejection fraction or not, and there may be others that could be defined over time.

where there are sensible distinctions, it may be necessary to study them separately, and a wide variety of other eticlogic and concomitant therapy characteristics can be looked at as subsets because you really can't do much better. You can't study every group.

DR. FLEMING: But your trial, Bob,

1 shouldn't be studying a more narrow group than you're 2 labeling, than you intend with your labeling. 3 DR. TEMPLE: No, I agree with that. 4 the other hand, you know, I think just to follow up Jay's example, if you include a wide variety of people 5 6 and a third of them are people who really wouldn't be 7 expected to respond, but you've included them, you may get an overall favorable result, but it really may not 8 apply to one subset that you've included. 9 10 You can make a study strong enough to overcome the fact that you've included some people 11 you've just carried along. You don't get away with 12 this just by failing to have the inclusion of 13 inappropriate people to defeat the study. You still 14 do need to look at intelligent subsets of the 15 population, and you should plan to do that. 16 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me --17 The trouble is our view of DR. TEMPLE: 18 what's intelligent changes as we learn more, but 19 20 that's okay. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me put a bookmark 21

here, and at least get a committee consensus on one

specific issue to Ray and then have Ray respond, and that is --

(Laughter.)

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Whatever.

I think that almost everyone who has commented on this important topic has suggested that a part of the problem that exists right now could be addressed by Tom Fleming's suggestion to minimize the differences between the patient population studied and the indication being sought, which relates to the question we had to Ray earlier, because right now frequently sponsors get a much broader indication than the patient population being sought, i.e., ejection fraction is not even mentioned in the labeling even though only patients with a low ejection fraction are measured or patients with a low ejection fraction are evaluated.

would it be a sense of the committee -and I do not want discussion on this -- that the
indication section of labeling be more highly
reflective of the patient population being evaluated?
Does anyone disagree with that?

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1	And, Ray, that would at least give you our
2	sense that we would like to see the indication
3	sections be more specific, particularly as it relates
4	to major categories of disease.
5	DR. LIPICKY: It will come up again when
6	you get farther into the guideline, and I think I
7	would like to comment on that at that time.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No problem.
9	DR. LIPICKY: But you can bring this to
10	closure.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Terrific.
12	The next section, which is Section 3 on
13	clinical pharmacology, we had planned on having Dan
14	Roden discuss it. Dan is delayed this morning, and we
15	will try to get his comments later on.
16	Let me just, if I could, in literally a
17	minute summarize the fact that what this section does
18	is it describes a number of processes that a sponsor
19	might follow in order to characterize a drug in terms
20	of its pharmacological actions.
21	And the division would like to emphasize
22	that characterization of a drug is highly desirable,

but that the surrogates that are normally used to characterize a drug are not necessarily the primary endpoints for clinical trials and, therefore, are not necessarily the basis for approval, but are the basis for adequate characterization.

Therefore, the characterization of a drug is a necessary, but not sufficient, component of drug development, and the degree of characterization should be appropriate to the agent being evaluated and is a worthwhile point of discussion with the division.

And that is the overall summary of that One point which I want Barry Massie to is there has always been a lot comment on characterization of the the discussion in pharmacological effect about dose response. discussion about lot of dose response relationships in clinical pharmacology studies in distinction to dose response relationships to major trials with clinical endpoints, with clinical measures as their endpoint.

And the difficulty that exists is that the surrogates which are used in clinical pharmacology

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studies that might be used to define dose response may or may not relate to the clinical endpoints that are used, and that specific issue is addressed in Section 3.2, and therefore, the quideline now states that it is important to evaluate more than one dose whenever appropriate in major trials simply because in clinical than one dose evaluation of more pharmacology studies may or may not be adequate.

Barry has previously, which is why I want him to comment, has discussed the concept of a pyramid where a large number of doses might be evaluated in clinical pharmacology studies with fewer and fewer doses as the endpoints in the clinical trials become more clinically relevant.

Barry.

DR. MASSIE: Yeah, and pyramid sounds awfully big, but I think the concept is certainly an important one and one that Ray has, of course, pushed over the years quite strongly, which is that generally we have no idea what the right dose is of a drug. The clinical pharmacology evaluations can put u in the ball park, but probably not narrow it down, and I can

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think of very few development programs where at one point or another people haven't looked back and said, "I wish I had known about the safety or the efficacy of a dose I didn't study." Some have collapsed as a result of not looking at that type of data when they may be very good drugs. In fact, some have been resurrected only because they looked at more than one dose.

What we have here is, of course, the conflict between what's desirable and what's practical, but I think in general, I think I agree with some paraphrasing of some statements I made earlier, which is, yes, if we have a clinical pharmacology marker that makes sense, and we're now facing an era of drug development where we may not have any clinical pharmacology markers that are going to help us out, but when we do, we should study several doses, and I think we should carry at least two doses into our major clinical trials.

And my offer, which I'm not sure that Ray would pick up on, would be that we somehow or another loosen the statistical penalties of dropping groups,

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but starting with several; that we allow interim analyses to determine the most effective dose along the way in order to somehow or another reduce the cost of getting this very important information.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We will deal with this in a very specific part of today's discussion, and there are many who have spoken to this issue, and we will speak to this issue more specifically.

DR. MASSIE: So that's the way I would get to my pyramid. Look at several doses, figure out your best clinical pharmacology marker, look at something on the high end, the middle end, and maybe the low end. Bring those into clinical trials, and somehow or other hopefully one can then narrow things down or at least get the right answer at the end.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: This is sufficiently important issue, and it is likely actually to get submerged later on. Let's take, if we could, just a few minutes to talk about one of the imposing things that sponsors frequently encounter is that if they do multiple doses, there's multiplicative effect on sample size not only because

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of the fact that you're studying more than one dose, but because there may or may not be a statistical penalty for multiple comparisons within a trial.

And we need to at least discuss this point very briefly because it's pivotal to the feasibility of dose response studies, and, Rob, why don't you start off? And, Tom, I'll ask you to speak to this as well.

DR. CALIFF: Yeah, this issue is mixed up with several key factors from my perspective. Again, I'm going to be a little outrageous here, hopefully to stimulate discussion, but the key factors to me are the increasing cost of developing clinical therapeutics, encouraging people to do the right thing, and matching the dose and use of a drug to where it's really going to be used in practice.

So I guess the outrageous statement would be that the way things have gone, I think sponsors have increasingly been encouraged to be more and more certain about more and more irrelevant characteristics of drugs because of the huge cost of really finding out the answers that will improve the outcomes of

patients.

And I think what we need to do is to try and figure out how we can encourage people to do the right thing. I would rather be a little more uncertain about a clinical outcome study in a relevant population than to be absolutely certain, again, as with mebefrodil, in a population which is not terribly relevant to the broad group of people who would actually be treated in practice.

So I agree completely with what Barry said. We really don't have surrogates in heart failure that are known to be predictive of what the ultimate impact of a drug will be on a patient's longevity or quality of life, but surrogates are absolutely essential in the early developmental phase to narrow down to several doses.

If we retain the strict criteria we currently have statistically and you have more than one dose in a large clinical trial, the costs become so high. We're seeing good therapies now being put on the shelf by companies because relative to development -- my favorite one right now is cosmetic drugs where

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you make a huge profit with small studies. It's just not worth it to spend the money.

And yet here we have the most important public health epidemic, and we're out pricing. So I would encourage our statistical colleagues to help us think through how we can put in rules that will make it easier for companies to do the right thing.

Maybe it does require not sticking to a less than one in 10,000 chance that you could be wrong when it's real clinical outcomes that are being studied.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Tom.

DR. FLEMING: Rob, just a couple of key points. Just very quickly on the first relative to the surrogates, I would concur with very much of what Rob said throughout that the understanding of mechanisms of action can be extremely helpful and often most directly identifies what biological mechanisms or biological measures are likely to be impacted, and these are our surrogates.

And use of those surrogates can be extremely helpful in early development studies and

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helping to guide dose selection, et cetera.

Yet because there are a multiplicity of different causal mechanisms of the disease process, as well as of the intervention intended and unintended, the ultimate clinical trial needs to focus on effects on clinical endpoints.

Relative to this issue of multiple doses, we could have a long discussion. In the interest of trying to keep it short, I believe that adjustment is necessary, but I would argue for adjustment that makes sense.

For example, if you had two doses against a control in a single study, and what we're typically trying to preserve whether it's a one-sided .025 or a two-sided .05, both of those share the property that it's a .025 false positive error that we're trying to preserve. So let me state in terms of that one-sided .025 standard.

If you had a single dose against a control and you got .02, you would hit that magical boundary for a standard for strength of evidence. If you had two doses against a control each of which were, quote,

unquote, significant at the .02 level, if you did a correction for having done two requiring half of .025 or .0125, neither of those would be formally statistically significant, but that's a bit illogical because there's stronger evidence with two doses, both significant at .02, than just one dose significant a .02.

And my argument is we are not really applying the statistical guidelines in a way that make practical sense. I believe you do have to adjust for the existence of the second dose. To my way of thinking, the analysis ought to be a comparison of each dose against control and whether or not that is viewed to be individually statistically significant as based on our standard strength of evidence, which is .025.

But then at the time that we look at all of the data, which is typically right here at an Advisory Committee level, then all of the information needs to be taken into account, and the existence of these other doses do come into play.

So that, for example, if I have a low dose

that's significant at the .02 and there exists a high dose that's also significant at the .02, recognizing, of course, the correlation because of the common control, my formal or informal meta analysis should be done and should recognize that the existence of the high dose data doesn't weaken the low dose data. It strengthens it.

And statistical analyses through formal or informal meta analyses do allow us then to take into account all of the multiplicity of testing, so to speak, or the multiplicity of experience that we have with multiple doses.

So I guess bottom line is -- and I think it gets at what Barry's advocating -- if you do a study with two doses, I look at each of the individuals against a control individually to see whether or not that is evidence of that particular comparison being significant.

I don't try to control the experiment wide error rate, but I do adjust for this multiplicity of experiences, but do so at an Advisory Committee point when you're looking at the totality of information.

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Does the totality of information provide convincing 1 2 evidence of efficacy? 3 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lem. 4 DR. MOYE: I feel compelled to respond. 5 Is alpha conservatism necessary all of the time? 6 Certainly not. There are circumstances where you do pilot studies, where you do hypothesis generating 7 I cannot resist doing hypothesis generating 8 9 work, as I'm sure many of my colleagues here cannot. 10 And so in some circumstances you call it 11 hypothesis generating, and you carry out 12 analyses. 13 However, in circumstances where you are 14 identifying a new intervention for a large patient 15 population, you have to provide adequate protection 16 for the release of a placebo poison, and by placebo 17 poison, I mean a medication that is presumed to be effective, but in fact is not, but the medications do 18 19 have side effects. And so by making the Type 1 error, you are 20 21 essentially releasing a placebo poison. There has got

to be adequate community protection for that, and the

best protection, a protection that we are unhappy with and I myself sometimes, is Type 1 error rates.

Having said that, I think I can say that there are some alternative procedures that are now becoming available and seeing increased use that may ride to the rescue.

One of them is the notion of dependency in your measures of events, and we've seen some examples. One was in teguelin, I think, where they actually did computations providing some verv defensible correlation between events occurring at one intervention or another intervention, and were, therefore, able to conserve Type 1 errors so that they had an adequate error rate leading to fairly lower sample size and, therefore, an executable study.

And also some work that hopefully will be out in the literature which suggests that, in fact, you can, by looking at the total experimental alpha level and setting that at a somewhat higher rate than .05, but specifying some bounds on the alpha that you would sent for the primary endpoint, that there is the -- one can make a very statistical alpha conservative,

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defensible argument for positive studies not only where one dose is positive but another does is negative, but where the primary endpoint finding may be nonsignificant, but the study could be considered positive because of a positive finding for a secondary endpoint.

I mean, if that analysis holds up and is just coming into the literature now, if the analysis holds up and many of my mathematical and stat. colleagues agree with that, then there is ample opportunity here to, number one, continue to hold as paramount the notion of being conservative about Type 1 error, but having new ways to use it so that you have adequate alpha to expand on in these complicated experimental environments where you have multiple interventions and multiple endpoints.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. The goal here is not to get into a detailed discussion of this. It's more to let people simply clarify their overall concepts about this.

Ray?

DR. LIPICKY: Well, very quickly, I guess,

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I'm not quantitatively very competent, but the discussions in this area generally focus upon making two points comparisons and talk about spending alpha and so on and so forth, and I think that framework of reference is totally wrong.

When you have more than one dose of a drug, the question, I think, should not be is this data point different from the other data point and how do I have to pay a statistical penalty. The question should be devoted to: is this dose related?

And I think that most of the things that deal with trying to distinguish one number from another number are far less powerful in terms of what they require than when you take all of the data together, and I'd be willing to impose model dependent analyses on that information.

And it's not very well dealt with, and just as an example, in the hypertension arena, I know James Hung has a paper published on doing an analysis where you can conclude that the trial found a combination product where, in fact, both ingredients contribute to the effect. This was published a number

1 of years ago, very powerful. 2 Even though every cell doesn't distinguish itself from another, I have never seen anyone analyze 3 a factorial trial that way. They always send them in 4 comparing one cell to the other and talk about the 5 stuff, even though we said this is how you should do 6 7 it and we'll accept it. So there is a lot of miscommunication in 8 9 this area, and it is not well handled, and it is not 10 internalized anywhere along the line, and I would like to see a lot more discussion about that, but it's very 11 12 technical and very difficult. 13 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: All right. 14 going to get Lloyd and then Bob, and then we will 15 close this topic. Actually I want to have Dave DeMets talk 16 17 about surrogates as a closing statement, just to summarize your views on that. 18 19 DR. FISHER: Yeah, we have very competing 20 things here. Later today we'll probably hear that if you have a serious irreversible endpoint -- in fact, 21

it's in the draft guidelines -- we'll have to go to

the level of two trials, the .0025, and here we're talking about weakening our level of proof.

I've come to the following conclusions.

I'll give Bob Temple a little clue about some things

I'm going to say at a Pharma meeting so that he can

start thinking about it.

Number one, our statistical models, as nice as they are, don't really adequately mirror the level of evidence in its entirety, and I doubt that they will within my lifetime.

But having said that, I think there's a number of ways we can begin to address things. For example, sponsors can design parallel group trials, but actually go with just one of the doses after relatively little evidence, say, if you've just ruled out big differences in certain ways. In other words, you don't have to go to where you show each dose is definitive.

It might be a quarter or a third of the way through, and if you don't see huge differences, you may want to pick the high dose, say, the usual philosophy, to be sure we get our effect, and then

come back in Phase 4 and have a non-placebo controlled and get more information.

In other words, the learning does not have to stop at the time of approval.

Secondly, by our usual paradigm, let's say we have an endpoint where we can ethically do two trials. We have one positive trial and one that is not quite positive, and we look at it, and we say, you know, "Sorry, but this just misses." The more that I think about it, it doesn't make sense to me to require someone to go out and do an entire new trial at the .05 level, which is typically the way things are done now.

Why can't we say if we get a certain amount of additional information, that standing alone would have relatively little statistical power, say, a P of .2 or something, but in conjunction with everything else would push us over the edge?

And I think we really need to start thinking about this very seriously because I think it can save tremendous resources, and that's what we'll be talking about in a few weeks.

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Just let me ask Lloyd 2 a question because part of what I want to talk about is not just lessening the penalties for the end of the 3 trial having multiple groups, but ending the penalties 4 5 for stopping a group early, like what you just brought 6 up. 7 Because I think it has been interpreted 8 that there is a statistical penalty in general to 9 start with three groups and drop one because it 10 doesn't look as good as the other one or it looks the 11 same later, but I think that is the most cost effective strategy. 12 13 If you're going to go with three groups to 14 the end, it's still going to cost a lot of money even 15 if you lower the threshold a little bit. 16 DR. FISHER: I don't want to get too technical because Milt doesn't want that here and this 17 18 isn't the right audience, but you know, statisticians, 19 of course, are not magicians. I mean, we operate 20 within the constraints of mathematics, as Dr. Moye 21 eloquently reminded us a number of times.

But having said that, there are ways you

can actually pay appropriate penalties for this, and there's a number of tests. It always amazes me that with two arms, for example, people often don't do tests where you assume at least a monotone response of some sort for your efficacy. They often do the equivalent of one-way analysis of variance, but there are more efficient things that can often be done, and suspicion is, although I haven't done the computations because I haven't had a real trial to work on; my suspicion is that if you do this under most scenarios, the penalty will be relatively small. It certainly will not be anywhere near equivalent to keeping all of the arms.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob.

DR. TEMPLE: Studying multiple doses in short term, symptomatic studies is not a big development problem, and it can be done. It's done in hypertension all the time, and I don't think that's the problem.

The problem is with large trials where you are talking about thousands of patients, and I think we ought to take a better look at how much we really

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need multiple doses.

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Ray will roll over about this, but it's worth reminding everybody. I was making a small list that for beta blockers, lipid lowering drugs, ACE inhibitors in heart failure, essentially hypertension trials, we have not studied single doses. Sometimes we've titrated to an endpoint. Sometimes you've just given a big slug. I mean the timolol post infarction trial probably is the dose five times what you need to get adequate beta blockade, and that's not a big problem because there's not a lost of dose related toxicity or, put another way, the results were so good we don't care that much if the results would have been a little better if we had a bigger dose or a smaller dose, and it was practically very difficult to study multiple doses.

There are some drugs with minimum dose related toxicity where it makes the most sense to study a high dose. There are other drugs where there's a bleeding risk or something if you put the dose where you might want to be much more cautious.

But how you be cautious might be a

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different way. For example, you might start a high dose group of some kind of anti-platelet drug and a low dose group just to see if there was excess bleeding in the first 1,000 patients, and if there wasn't, you might drop the low dose group and go with the high dose group.

I'm not sure what the penalty should be there, but it can't be very large. You've only exposed a small fraction of your population, and if you wanted to, you could even not do any interim efficacy look at all. You could just look at bleeding.

So there probably are a lot of ways to design trials to answer certain intermediate questions that don't have big penalties, but I think we need to think about why we always want two doses. There are some drugs that aren't very dose related toxic, and maybe those are cases where we should just eat the uncertainty and go with a good, big dose, as we always have in the past, by the way.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob, and again, the goal here is not to have this go into a long

discussion about the desirability or nondesirability 1 2 of more than one dose. I just want one -- it may be appropriate 3 to simply emphasize what Barry said earlier, and that 4 is that it's not so much that one requires multiple 5 doses in all cases, and it isn't so much what the 6 7 agency would or would not do if one didn't have 8 multiple doses. 9 Ι think Barry's point is that the examples, particularly in the area of heart failure, 10 where it's been in the sponsor's interest to do 11 multiple doses in a clinical evaluation trial --12 13 DR. TEMPLE: Only in the short term The large studies almost never have more 14 studies. than one dose. The large outcome studies have usually 15 16 been one dose. 17 Well, that may be CHAIRPERSON PACKER: part of the problem. The risk to benefit relationship 18 19 in heart failure may not necessarily parallel the risk to benefit relationship in other therapeutic areas, 20 and the number of times when a sponsor has regretted 21

not evaluating another dose in their clinical efficacy

1	trials is so numerous as to be unbelieved.
2	DR. TEMPLE: But the point is, Milton, we
3	have enough experience now to know that for ACE
4	inhibitors it may not matter much, and for ionotropes
5	it may matter a lot.
6	I mean sometimes you can use that kind of
7	information to design either a multi-dose trial or a
8	non-multi-dose trial. It may vary from one situation
9	to another.
10	I don't think we should reflexly say,
11	"Well, I know you're planning a 20,000 patient study,
12	but really you've got to make it 30." That just may
13	defeat the ability to do any study at all.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Ray?
15	DR. LIPICKY: Well, only to respond to
16	what's been said. It could be that the beta blocker
17	positive effect would be three times the effect that
18	you see. You just don't know that. So all you know
19	is it works.
20	DR. TEMPLE: True.
21	DR. LIPICKY: Okay, and you don't know if
22	you couldn't get a better effect. That's one.

1	DR. TEMPLE: Right.
2	DR. LIPICKY: Two
3	DR. TEMPLE: But, Ray, at least you know
4	that because somebody bothered to do the study.
5	DR. LIPICKY: Well, no, no, no. That's
6	fine, but the question is not what can you get away
7	with. The question, just like with respect to
8	etiology of heart failure, is what are the decision
9	making factors that you ought to think about. That's
10	what's in the guidelines.
11	You can always get away with much less
12	than what is intelligent and rational, right? ACE
13	inhibitors you know now are probably not the
14	highest tolerated dose is probably okay, but you know
15	that on the basis of a single study, and that is
16	something like the 12th or 13th study that studied
17	irreversible harm in patients with heart failure.
18	So it took that long to find that
19	information out. It would have been nice to know that
20	up front. That would have been a public health
21	benefit.
22	So all of those things are true, but

1	that's not what we're talking about, I don't think,
2	for the guideline purposes what you can get away with.
3	We're talking about what things you ought to think
4	about.
5	DR. TEMPLE: It's bi-directional, Ray,
6	though. The bias shouldn't always be you should study
7	as many doses as possible. You ought to be thinking
8	of whether this is a case where you should make the
9	study larger and only study a single does because may
10	have a benefit, too. You've got to think both ways.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Dave, do you want to
12	have any concluding comments on surrogates?
13	DR. DeMETS: Well, I think that what I
14	would say is similar to what Tom says since we
15	published a paper a couple of years ago on this. I
16	think in heart failure we have clearly demonstrated in
17	any disease area I know that there's no reliable
18	surrogate outcome measure to predict clinical effect
19	on clinically relevant outcome.
20	And so if that's true, then you have a
21	problem in designing or picking the right dose because

you can get in the ball park maybe based on toxicity,

but what dose do you pick for clinical efficacy? You don't have a very good guidance by the so-called surrogates.

So I think that a year or so ago we spent two days discussing how to design Phase 2 studies in heart failure. I think you have to look harder at clinical outcomes, and the trouble is, as others have said at the very start of this discussion, that if you put in two or three more doses and have to pay a penalty, divide alpha by two or three or four, you're paying a heavy up front penalty.

What we really need to do, I think, is think of designs where you start out with two or three doses because you don't know exactly which one is going to be clinically the most interesting and start dropping the ones because you can't afford to do the four N study as opposed to the two N study. So you get to drop some doses depending on what you see and do it in such a way that you protect the Type 1 error at least in a reasonable fashion.

But there's clearly no surrogat ϵ that's going to help us much in the right dose for the

1	clinical outcome.
2	DR. THADANI: When you drop the dose, it
3	runs the danger that it might be the effective dose.
4	I mean you're presuming the high dose is safe, and
5	you're dropping the low dose.
6	DR. DeMETS: I'm not presuming anything.
7	I want to start out with two, three doses. I'm
8	suggesting, and look to see what's happening.
9	DR. THADANI: Why drop them? Carry on
10	with if safety is not the issue, just carry on with
11	all of them.
12	DR. DeMETS: If you can afford four N, do
13	it.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Why don't we move
15	forward? The next section we'll be talking about is
16	the Section 4, which is the design of major studies
17	Who wants to take a break? Anyone?
18	PARTICIPANT: No.
19	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I guess not.
20	PARTICIPANT: I just did.
21	(Laughter.)
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We're going to move

1	on to Section 4. I want to emphasize, again, the goal
2	in reviewing this document is not to review every
3	paragraph or every sentence. This discussion has been
4	organized in order to proactively identify areas of
5	controversy.
6	So there are many parts of this document
7	which are really not very controversial and,
8	therefore, we are just not discussing today.
9	So we've highlighted already in Sections
10	1, 2, and 3 the areas of controversy, and these are
11	the areas which are likely to be modified in
12	subsequent versions of this document.
13	In terms of Section 4, design of major
14	studies, we've asked Lloyd Fisher to review and
15	summarize the major issues here.
16	Lloyd.
17	DR. FISHER: Okay. Well, I was asked, and
18	I'm prepared to talk about I guess I can talk about
19	the whole thing. I'll look at my notes, but I was
20	told to go up to about Section 4.4.
21	The reason I mention that, was somebody
22	else assigned the rest of Section 4?

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No. You've got all of four, but, you know, it's okay. 2 3 DR. FISHER: The baseline evaluation, the population we've talked about quite a bit. 4 5 introduction paragraph I note the range of the useful 6 doses is supposed to be defined. We just discussed 7 I won't go into that again. 8 In the baseline evaluation period, 9 wanted to bring up the issue. It says here the idea 10 is to minimize noise imposed, and this, of course, 11 developed more classically when most of the efficacy 12 was exercise testing, and we wanted stability in exercise testing and relatively stable heart failure. 13 14 I might point out that when we go for mortality or mortality plus serious morbidity, the 15 16 issue is much more complex, and since there will 17 inevitably be deaths and a fairly long run-in period, and this comes up again later in the document under 18 analysis, it's difficult to know how to evaluate those 19 data. 20 21 Certainly one looks at it to see that the

mortality rate is consistent with the rest of the

study once you randomize. Otherwise you run the risk of having a very high risk set taken out early, but probably in general it's not a good idea if it's a mortality and/or serious morbidity study actually to have a long baseline evaluation period because we don't have any comparisons for those endpoints, those deaths.

And so Dr. Temple's enrichment design is very nice in a variety of settings, but it's probably not too desirable here.

I won't say anything about placebo controls and blinding or the need for randomization.

I think we've all been schooled in this long enough that we realize that it's very desirable unless there's some particular reason it can't be done.

There's a section on the use of background therapy. In general, I think most of the trials, unless the drug is intended as a replacement for some of the standard background therapies -- will have standard background therapy because the investigators will feel that it's unethical not to avoid it.

So perhaps this is not as debatable as it

might be. There is the statement, "Generally the use of background medications should be of little consequence if the trial is appropriately designed."

I don't know how you can necessarily conclude that.

Often the background therapy actually is whatever the patient can take in terms of digitalis, diuretics, ACE inhibitors, possibly beta blockers now.

And since the background therapy is not randomized, it could have a large effect, and we wouldn't know it at the end of the trial unless we have an observed treatment interaction.

There's a discussion of the use of positive controls which are very difficult, to say the least. In that paragraph it might be added that occasionally you can get some idea of how the historical control did against placebo and then try to integrate that knowledge into your evaluation. Granted it's historical, but at least you've taken into account the variability in the placebo controlled trials or controlled trials of your active control in the current trial, and the committee saw this when lapidogril was discussed.

Crossover designs, as stated, are very difficult in general and problematic, but I think in heart failure it's much worse than in general because the substrate changes so often, and it's really a horrible idea.

Dr. Temple isn't in favor of it in mortality trials. There does tend to be a certain carryover effect.

(Laughter.)

DR. FISHER: Open label run-in periods I just discussed, and that takes us up to five.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd, before opening this up for discussion, let me just make sure that I have identified correctly the areas of the document that you think require some either modification or clarification. Can you just summarize that again?

DR. FISHER: Well, the either open label run-in or baseline evaluation period, I think, can be more problematic here in part for the reason crossover trials run into problems. You have this change in substrates. So even if you only include perple stable for a certain length of time, that doesn't remotely

imply that they'll continue to be stable for a very long time period.

And I haven't actually looked at the natural history to see if the exacerbations looked as if, say, they followed the time to some exacerbation was exponential. If it is, that implies what's called a memoryless property.

But in point of fact no matter how long they're stable, you don't really get any relevant information about what's going to happen later, and certainly when you have the open label run-in, if your baseline evaluation includes time on the drug, then you run into all kinds of problems for the analysis if you have enough individuals and enough exposure that you get many deaths at all.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think what this paragraph should say is that the concept of a baseline evaluation period and its length really needs to be individualized according to the kind of drug being developed, and also to the primary endpoints being evaluated.

As you said, in the past when, for

1	example, exercise was a primary endpoint, that
2	baseline evaluation period was very important.
3	DR. FISHER: And it also depends, of
4	course, on the severity of the heart failure or the
5	patient characteristics. You know, if it were a Class
6	1 or something, then you're not going to get that many
7	certainly not fatal events, and it might be more
8	reasonable.
9	But as you get up into the twos and
-0	threes, then the issue can be quite substantial.
.1	Hear Bob Temple on this.
L2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, Bob.
L3	DR. TEMPLE: We've seen some baseline run-
14	ins where the reason was to see if patients could
15	tolerate the drug. Your alternative, of course, is to
16	just randomize everybody and drop them, but then
17	you're dropping large numbers of patients.
18	The CAS study actually, the CAS studies,
19	I mean, provided one way of solving that problem. I
20	don't know if everybody remembers this, but in the CAS
21	studies, you had to have a 70 reduction in 'PBs in
22	order to be randomized.

Well, the first studies took patients fairly recently after an MI and made sure that they had these responses, and there were a lot of deaths in that group, but of course, nobody could know what to make of that because there was no comparator group.

CAS II said we're worried about this. Maybe the drug is killing people off during the initial peak treatment. So they did a randomized run-In other words, they got a mortality result, and I don't know if people remember this, but the ethmozine report is a report on the run-in period. There were 19 deaths on ethmozine and only one in the treated group.

And I would say based on the carvatelol experience the right way to do a run-in period like that where there's any chance of people dying during the run-in period is to have a control group for it, and then you can go about your business.

I think that would work, although the CAS II is the only case that I know where anybody's done it, but you pay a tremendous price if, say, a third of your patients aren't going to tolerate the drug and

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you just randomize from day one. You know, a third of 1 your patients don't make it through a week, and you 2 3 get a funny answer. 4 So it's worth thinking about how to do it in a way that's interpretable. Most mortality studies 5 don't need a run-in period. You don't have to be sure 6 anything's stable. You don't have to be sure they 7 have the disease. You already know that. 8 9 It's only when you're trying to screen for 10 people who can't respond to it that it becomes an issue, and the thought of randomizing the run-in 11 12 should be considered. 13 DR. THADANI: How long a run-in? Could it be just patient tolerance dose one? Why do you need 14 15 weeks? I mean in a mortality study all you want to know is patient doesn't collapse on you because you 16 want to know the side effects of the drug. 17 18 can't you say maybe four, five, six days rather than 19 weeks? 20 DR. FISHER: No, I agree. If the adverse reaction is almost invariably present immediately, 21

then the total exposure may be such that -- I mean,

you can estimate the expected number of deaths if things are going well, and in that case you could probably put everybody into an open label, quick evaluation.

DR. THADANI: If I may ask one short question, what happens in the trial which is ongoing and your have the study on the basis of the current concomitant therapy, and then down the road a drug comes which saves lives? Beta blocker would be the example at the present time.

who's running the trial. The patients want it. If you don't do it, my colleague is going to put them on the drug, and then what happens? The trial is null and void or you hope the user of the new drug is going to be the same in both patient populations, the placebo and other group, and how do you handle that?

I realize it isn't concomitant, but concomitant has changed when the trial is halfway through and not over, and what are you going to do? Analyze the data and other factors are going to be in the new drug or the drug being tested?

DR. FISHER: Yeah, this, of course, isn't so much study design because you knew this was going to happen, you would have prepared for it. My personal view would be that provided, as far as you can tell from the mechanism, it should be an independent mechanism of action, the new drug you're adding, from what you're already studying, but you would allow introduction because it would actually be useful to have experience if this is going to be a standard concomitant therapy, assuming things work out well.

And then, of course, you have to monitor your data very closely, and although it's historical control because there's before the new addition and after the new medication, and then you have a group that didn't change you could try to look at, but you would look to see if something bizarre was going on, but if you couldn't demonstrate something, then I would propose that you would just continue your trial, and although it would have been nice if you had had the foreknowledge that this drug or whatever came in was going to appear and would be approved, everybody

1	would realize what happened, and you would probably
2	still get approval at the end if the trial were
3	positive.
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd, I just want to
5	again clarify. You've already described your comments
6	on 4.2. As I understand it, you're pretty much okay
7	with 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5, and 4.6. You've already
8	mentioned the comments of the putative placebo in 4.7.
9	DR. FISHER: By the way, the 4.3, 4.5,
10	4.6, which is kind of like motherhood and apple pie
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Exactly.
12	DR. FISHER: I didn't skip it because
13	it's routine. They're very important concepts, and if
14	possible, there should be placebo controls. There
15	should be blinding. There certainly should be
16	randomization.
17	But I don't think, unless anybody on the
18	panel disagrees with that view
19	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right.
20	DR. FISHER: we obviously shouldn't
21	spend time on it.
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: In fact, the purpose

1	of doing that is just to simply make sure that
2	everyone has heard that you're okay with those
3	sections. I understand they're a little bit of apple
4	pie and motherhood, but
5	DR. FISHER: Well, last week I opposed all
6	three, but this week I'm in favor now.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay, good. Okay.
8	Barry.
9	DR. MASSIE: Yeah, I think that this
10	concomitant therapy is clearly the issue that requires
11	more thinking than the others, as Lloyd has brought
12	up.
13	The issue of the new therapy is clearly a
14	critical one. I'm afraid one's stuck with the luck of
15	the draw. There's really no solution to it, but it is
16	important to think and it may be important for the
17	committee at the end of the day to look at the data.
18	But let's say you're giving a drug that
19	slows heart rate and then beta blockers come along and
20	you get much differential introduction of a good drug.
21	That could have a powerful effect in le sening the
22	benefit that might be observed with an effective drug

there.

The other issue, of course, is it changes the event rate, let's say, and let's say reduces mortality by 30 percent, and your power was already sort of marginal for the anticipated event rate in your population. You probably might want to and, I think, ought to be allowed to resize your trial at that point.

DR. FISHER: A lot of trials these days, maybe even the majority, are designed to go for numbers of endpoints actually rather than --

DR. MASSIE: Right, but if you have a differential effect on the difference --

DR. FISHER: If you have a treatment interaction where it lessens the effect, that's much more difficult, and I don't have any great solution as I sit here. I mean, I'd need to think about that a while as to whether --

DR. MASSIE: I don't think that there is.

I think if you see it coming, you try to get people on
that drug in advance, but since physicians pick up on
the use of new drugs pretty slowly, that's not likely

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to be too effective either. 1 2 I just think it's sort of the luck of the draw and see what's down the horizon, but I don't see 3 any way that people can look at it -- although if you 4 saw -- I guess what you could say is in your Cox 5 proportional hazards model somewhere along the line, 6 you might include a term that's not just a baseline 7 term, if you have, for instance, five times as many 8 people going in beta blockers with one therapy than 9 10 another in your randomized trial. 11 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, but, Barry, 12 that's hard. 13 DR. MASSIE: I know. It's very hard. 14 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: It's hard to -- can 15 you into a Cox model a post randomization 16 variable? 17 There is a --DR. FISHER: 18 DR. MOYE: Well, there's a procedure called a Cox model with a time dependent covariant, 19 20 which is when a Cox model is used, it's usually used to consider a variable which is measured during 21

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follow-up and on which therapy itself might have an

impact you can use this time varying covariant. 1 2 But the use of the model doesn't transform 3 us of the problem. It's difficult interpretation problem nevertheless. 4 5 DR. FISHER: Yeah, if you have this fiveto-one ratio, that means the two groups are clinically 6 distinguishable in some way to start with because they 7 had different profiles, and that's why one group had 8 a, say, beta blocker added so much more, and it could 9 be a fairly devastating thing. 10 11 Let's say that was in the placebo group and the beta blocker had a beneficial effect so that 12 13 you lose the overall --14 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: This is not 15 irrelevant problem. We are in the midst of an era now in the area of heart failure where we now have trials 16 with 17 three different beta blockers showing significant and important impact on the natural 18 history of disease, and yet a majority of patients 19 with heart failure are not yet on the beta blocker. 20 21 In fact, it would be fair to say that a minority of

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patients are on a beta blocker, but that proportion is

likely to change in the next several years and will change during the course of the conduct of a clinical trial.

So that maybe it wouldn't be an exaggeration to say that baseline use of beta blockers in an evaluation of a new drug might be ten percent in both groups and might increase to 40 or 50 percent over the course of two or three years.

That may or may not be a problem depending on whether there is an interaction between beta blockade and a new drug or whether beta blockade would reduce the magnitude of the effect or the dose response relationships of the drug and would be particularly problematic if the utilization of beta blockade post randomization was not similar in the two groups, which could occur either because the actual drug being studied has an effect on heart rate or because of some other physiologic basis for an interaction.

It actually is a particularly relevant question at this time because it influences the design of every trial which is now ongoing.

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Now, this is not a unique period of time. We encountered it exactly at a similar time when ACE inhibitors became more widespread, but we are encountering that era now, that transition era now, and as far as I know, there really isn't any solution.

When Lem was speaking, I saw both Tom and Dave shake their heads both this way and this way at various points in the conversation. It probably would be important to hear briefly what each of them have to say about this issue because it is such a relevant issue in this era.

DR. MASSIE: Just to frame it for a second, the effect of beta blockers looks like it's panning out that from meta analysis, which is an effect on mortality that is greater than I can expect any other drug is going to be seen.

Therefore, you're really putting in a major confounding factor. It's not like it's a ten percent reduction. It looks like a 30 percent reduction in mortality, and it will be hard to add on in a group that's on it already, and it might be that any drug we're studying wouldn't have an effect a size

1 that big. So if there's differential use, it just 2 would cloud the issue. 3 So if Lem had a solution there, it would 4 be nice to hear it. 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Tom and Dave. 6 DR. FLEMING: I come back to a general principle that I find guides my own thought in 7 8 designing trials. We ought to design trials to 9 address questions that are clinically relevant, i.e., 10 that address what the efficacy and safety of the intervention is in the real world manner in which it 11 12 would be applied. 13 Hence, concomitant meds. play a major role 14 here, and I believe should be allowed to be delivered as they would in clinical practice, and as you point 15 16 out, it may be that clinical practice for standard of 17 care evolves during the course of the trial. 18 I believe we need to let that evolve, and to the extent that it does and we're looking at 19 baseline evolution, the randomization is largely going 20 21 to maintain comparability between these two groups,

and what I heard Bob saying at one point is that you

can stratify based on baseline covariants, and all of that is fully appropriate and fully interpretable.

Lem was talking about what happens though you look at adjusting for exposure to interventions, imbalances not at baseline, involved during the course of the study, and we were shaking I heads, I think, in concurrence with Lem actually that such analyses can be done, but are extremely difficult to interpret.

Specifically, in my view, if there are imbalances in concomitant meds. after the time of randomization, that could well be the effect of the intervention or could be carrying part of the treatment signal. Any time varying covariant could be carrying treatment signal, and hence the interpretation of an analysis after adjusting for a time varying covariant is problematic.

So basically one needs to distinguish between imbalances at baseline versus imbalances that evolve during the course of the intervention, and I would advocate very much that we allow concomitant meds. to be delivered as they would in the real world,

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to evolve if evolving practice evolves.

All of that can be readily adjusted for and interpreted based on their baseline differences, but differences that evolve over the course of the intervention after randomization could well reflect treatment effect and largely shouldn't be adjusted out based on time varying covariants.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Dave.

DR. DeMETS: Yeah, I would agree with what Tom said and support what Lem was getting to, I think. There is a tendency to believe that the tools that we have available in statistics can sometimes rescue us from these dilemmas, but I don't think that's true in this case.

There are examples in looking at compliance in general to therapies, and if you sort of analyze data by how people comply to the therapy you prescribe, you know, you can get nonsense results, placebo compliers doing better than non-placebo compliers, that kind of thing, and the same issues are true for concomitant meds.

It's a dilemma, and it's a nasty one, but

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1	statistical methods, even though sophisticated and
2	sexy as they may sound, won't rescue us from this
3	fundamental problem unfortunately.
4	DR. FISHER: Just one design point though.
5	I think the best procedure when something comes up
6	would actually be get the investigators together and
7	say, "Let's try and put everybody on beta blockers,"
8	if you agree that's to be done, rather than just
9	letting things go as it happens to go.
10	DR. RODEN: Why wasn't that done in CAS,
11	Lloyd?
12	DR. THADANI: That's the only way to stop
13	it because as you said, drug is very effective. You
14	almost reach six months left, and suddenly patients on
15	placebo, for example, go on a beta blocker and your
16	mortality becomes narrower. You have killed a drug
17	which is effective.
18	So I think probably not mandated, but I
19	think all of the investigators perhaps, as you say,
20	should be told unless you definitely feel otherwise,
21	contrary indications to known, say, beta blockers
22	 certain counterindications exist put everybody on

|| it.

Maybe low doses are going to differ. What you do with the dose in the study, you find the dose only which is used in the study is very high dose or X dose which might have a major interaction with the drug you are studying, which is your investigative drug.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho, this is the ideal state where everyone should be on the drug is nonachievable. It's not only a matter of clinical practice. It's also -- it's not only a matter of dose. It's also a matter of during -- the news evolves on a continuous basis. We all have trials of other agents that come around. There's no point in time when there is equilibrium in this field.

And not only that, but a determination, a consensus as to what constitutes equilibrium is very elusive, and I don't think this is an achievable state.

Bob.

DR. TEMPLE: Well, perfection isn't achievable. The problem of the new patients entering

the trial having additional drugs is relatively easily solved. You can stratify it if you're worried about it. That's not the problem.

But as Tom said, the problem is what's going to happen if people go on therapy in differential rates afterward.

There's no reason why if you perceive the community to be heading toward a situation where most people with heart failure are unresponsive to ACE inhibitors and diuretics and are getting beta blockers to do the trial in a population of people that's already on a beta blocker.

That doesn't mean the whole world is already on a beta blocker, but that's a reasonable trial population. So that you could do that if you see that's the way it's going and save a lot of trouble, I would say.

I have one other point on a different matter. It's not controversial, I guess, but Section 4.3 refers to placebos in an ambiguous way and confuses placebo control with a no treatment control, and the last reason for not needing a placebo, that

is, the lack of a placebo effect, is wrong.

I'm sensitive to that because there have been a number of publications recently that have spoken as if the response in the placebo group is a placebo effect. Well, that's totally naive. That's not what it is at all.

It's the effect in the absence of treatment, but it's partly due to placebo. It's partly due to natural history, partly due to all kinds of things.

So I think the reason given for number three is not right, and there's a more complicated explanation for when an active control is okay, and it isn't this. So I just want to flag that. I'll send you comments.

DR. FISHER: There's another funny sentence in this paragraph which is one reason for not having a placebo is the new drug is known to be superior to another drug that is known to be effective, which sounds as if the drug should already be approved, I mean, if taken literally. So I wasn't sure what was meant there.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. I'm reading
2	it now actually.
3	DR. FISHER: I think it's misphrased.
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think it's
5	misphrased.
6	DR. TEMPLE: Superiority in an active
7	controlled trial is evidence of effectiveness
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.
9	DR. TEMPLE: unless the active control
10	is thought to be dangerous.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. Number one
12	I thought said it may not, in fact say that if
13	you beat an active control, that constitutes evidence.
14	DR. FISHER: What I had in my notes was I
15	had circled "no" and then put "shown," question mark.
16	So you're trying to show that.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Is shown as opposed
18	to know. Yes.
19	Rob?
20	DR. CALIFF: Milton, I have a dilemma here
21	in my relentless pursuit to reduce the cost of these
22	trials. I've heard our statistician friends say that

1 even in a broadly used single category of additional one cannot have any confidence in post 2 randomization analyses of subgroups, and yet as we're 3 trying to do clinical trials in the world, we're 4 having a hard time finding enough available sites 5 because the coordinators are spending hours to days to 6 7 months tracking down every drug a patient is taking, when it was started, when it was stopped, and if it 8 was done multiple times, every time it happened, at 9 10 the cost of thousands of dollars per patient, particularly for heart failure trials. 11 If we can't make use of something as broad 12

If we can't make use of something as broad as half the population on a drug, what are we doing all of this other stuff for, and why is the FDA forcing these drug companies to do this, thereby limiting the number of good studies that we can get done?

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: All right. Rob, I'll take the Chairman's prerogative here of suggesting, I guess, three things.

One, is it actually not a point for the quidelines because the guidelines actually don't say

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that concomitant medications need to be registered 1 faithfully, compulsively, and continuously during the 2 course of the study? 3 Second is I think that the requirement for 4 the measurement of concomitant medications may be more 5 conservatively interpreted by the pharmaceutical 6 industry than, in fact, may be required by the agency. 7 And I think that that least to point 8 number three, which is these issues probably need to 9 be discuss a priori as part of a development plan, a 10 11 point which I think you would agree with. So true? John. 12 DR. DiMARCO: I'm not sure when the right 13 14 time to bring this topic up is, but since we're 15 talking about concomitant therapy, it struck me as I read the entire guidelines that there's no mention of 16 17 defibrillators in the entire document. it, 18 In thinking about there's a concomitant therapy which is becoming more and more 19 introduced in patients with heart failure. Ι 20 shouldn't say doesn't have effect on heart failure, 21

but certainly can have an effect on hospitalizations,

can have a significant effect on mortality, and I could also perceive a drug which might produce symptomatic improvement in heart failure, which would have no harm on mortality in patients with defibrillators and yet significant harm on mortality in patients without defibrillators.

Since we're talking about this, I'm curious whether the heart failure mavens and the statisticians would like to address what should be done with defibrillators other than putting them in everybody, which I think may not be a condition for most studies, but is something that will come up during the course of the trials.

John, I can speak to the issue in terms of guidelines.

Defibrillators here are really treated as any background intervention and any background therapy.

If one believes that there might be an interaction between the use of defibrillators, then one could, in fact, stratify for that variable at baseline.

However, the continued utilization of defibrillators post randomization is it raises the

same complexity as the potential increased utilization of any therapy, including beta blockade, and is very hard to deal with statistically, and if a sponsor, I think, feels that there is an interaction with the use of defibrillators, they could design their trials to either include only such patients or potentially exclude all such patients at baseline.

But that would really depend on the specific characteristics of the drug being developed.

My view is it's just like any other background drug.

DR. DiMARCO: Yeah, except the fact that it will change your event classifications as well because you have to decide what you're going to do with defibrillator discharge.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's true, but remember we also deal -- and we're going to be getting into this -- as to what constitutes an endpoint in trials, and whether cost specific classifications are valuable, which is pertinent to the issue that you're bringing up, and I think also whether there are events that are similar to death, but are not death, and defibrillator discharge is one possibility.

1	Transplantation is another; LVAD insertion.
2	I don't want to even limit the discussion
3	as to what, in fact, may constitute a reasonable
4	endpoint, but we actually are going to talk about that
5	specifically in a short period of time.
6	We're going to go oh, I'm sorry. All
7	right. We're going to go one final round, which will
8	be Bert, Tom, Rob, and we'll go on to the next
9	subject.
10	PARTICIPANT: Final round on all of
11	Section 4?
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: It's all on Section
13	4.
14	DR. PITT: One thing that isn't addressed
15	in the document, Milton, is the other guidelines for
16	the evaluation of a drug in a class that has beer
17	shown to be effective. What is the FDA going to
18	demand?
19	There hasn't been class labeling, and I'm
20	not advocating there should be, but how does the
21	sponsor go about what should be the hurdles to
22	overcome in that situation? And somewhere in the

document it would be nice to address that. 1 Actually, Bert, the CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 2 absence of that discussion was, in fact, intentional. 3 quideline which doesn't First of all. it's a 4 necessarily cover everything. 5 That discussion is a difficult one. My 6 sense, it might very well depend on the very specific 7 characteristics of the agent being developed, how 8 persuasive the data might be for the class, whether 9 there are alternatives. 10 example, would you put an A2 For 11 antagonist in the same, quote, class as an ACE 12 And you could argue, you know, both ways. 13 inhibitor? And it's not only an issue with respect to 14 It's an issue with respect to how much efficacy. 15 safety data do you need and would you need less safety 16 data if it was in the same class even though it's a 17 really, really different chemical, and it's 18 complicated. 19 The reason I bring it up, DR. PITT: 20 obviously you can't do placebo controlled trials for 21

the next X ACE inhibitor or the X beta blocker, and we

1 talked about here positive control trials and said, boy, we don't like that, but we have to address it 2 somewhere because that's a practical problem with many 3 4 different agents. 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Although I would say 6 that I remember a discussion years ago at this 7 committee when a sponsor came in asking for a claim for a calcium channel blocker for vasospastic angina, 8 9 and the claim was primarily based on the fact that it 10 was every reason to think the drug would work for 11 vasospastic angina, but they couldn't find anyone not treated with a calcium channel blocker to enroll in 12 their trials and, therefore, wanted a claim based on 13 the mechanism. 14 15 And they had tried to find the patients. 16 They tried to do the trial and couldn't find anyone, 17 and I think our response to them was I think God is 18 trying to tell you something. Sometimes you don't need to develop a drug. 19 20 (Laughter.) 21 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Tom.

I'd like to address a few

DR. FLEMING:

points, separate points. The first is in response to Rob's comment about do we need to collect concomitant meds. that are initiated after time of randomization or baseline.

I don't think the comments that some of us were making before was that that information isn't relevant, although I think Rob's making a good point.

Maybe we don't need to collect as much data as we do.

Nevertheless this data can still be relevant.

Our concern was using this in time dependent covariant models as part of your primary analysis and the reservations with that. This type of information is still certainly informative, and in some settings if those concomitant meds. are particularly toxic, expensive, or inconvenient, it's part of the treatment effect or part of the efficacy outcome, for example, as you would see in a lupus trial looking at Agent A versus standard of care where concomitant meds. are prednisone.

This type of information certainly can be very informative in the overall assessment of impact of an intervention. Concern was using it as time

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varying covariants.

I'd like to quickly touch on three other issues that we have discussed briefly to mention a couple of important specifics, I think.

Section 4.4, the need for blinding. I think we've heard strong endorsement of this need. I certainly concur in general with that, although would want to be sure that there is a caution that the placebo needs to be inert.

I've seen trials where the placebo wasn't inert, was actually providing some of the benefit, and in one setting providing some harm. A real quick illustration of that was a study that Dave and I were monitoring a number of years ago that was looking at adding Agent A or Agent B to standard of care, a three-arm study, and they wanted to avoid giving two thirds of o the people the A placebo and two thirds of the people the B placebo. So A and B were allocated open label, and then two thirds of the A were given active A, one third placebo; two thirds of the B given active B, one third placebo in blinded ways.

So we actually had three groups, one of

the groups, the placebo group, half of whom got A placebo, half of whom got B placebo randomly. So we actually have a rare case of evaluating whether the placebos were inert.

At the interim analysis there were 19 deaths in the placebo group, 17 on A placebo, two on B placebo. So in one of these rare cases where we could evaluate efficacy or inefficacy, inertness of placebo, we saw striking differences.

So I would hope that when we go to placebos that we do so with an awareness that the inertness of the placebo is a critically important condition for the interpretability of the trial.

A second point, use of positive control, Section 4.7, I think does give important cautionary statements about the use of positive controls and ultimately making conclusions about efficacy, but I think it may be overly cautionary in the sense that there are settings in which an establishment of equivalence could allow for a conclusion of efficacy of an intervention.

I would argue that there are three key

conditions, and the first is that the active control needs to be one that is known to be very effective; secondly, with a precisely defined level of efficacy; and, thirdly, with that being precisely defined in the setting in which this trial will be conducted.

are then able to establish equivalence of a new therapy against that active control, I believe that does allow you to conclude according to a reasonable standard for strength of evidence that you have efficacy, and this could be well motivated in the setting where your new intervention has a profile that would provide improved toxicity, improved convenience, or improved cost relative to standard of care.

The final point is relating to the 4.9 on use of open label run-in periods. I think we've heard that these can be very helpful in focusing a population into those who are tolerant and compliant. We've also heard about the clever design in CAS II, which I strongly endorse if you're going to use this, which is the randomized control during the run-in to be able to assess for possible adverse effects during

run-in.

There are some other issues though with this design that at least should be acknowledged, at least qualifications, if not limitations, and the first is that such a design limits labeling, possibly appropriately, to those people who are compliant and tolerant. Those are the ones that are assessed in the trial.

And, secondly, that the design is really assessing whether you continue versus stop as opposed to whether you treat versus don't treat because everybody is getting the run-in, and then you randomize to treatment versus control. You're really assessing continuation of therapy versus stopping of the therapy.

And if you happen to have a setting where you have withdrawal toxicities or adverse events associated with stopping, the differences that you may see may not be attributable to benefit from continuing, but rather adverse effects from stopping.

DR. RODEN: When I read this over, I wasn't sure whether the last sentence of Chapter 4

said what it was supposed to say. Is that what you 1 2 meant to say? 3 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The one that begins "open label"? 4 5 DR. RODEN: Right, right. I would have actually, based on all of the arguments you've 6 7 presented, I would have thought it should say the 8 opposite, or am I just misinterpreting it? CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, I think several 9 10 sections of this document have been discussed in 11 various meetings. This happens to be one paragraph that this is the last paragraph. This is Lines 478 to 12 13 482. This is a paragraph that actually has been 14 extensively discussed in the past, and the statement, 15 the second sentence of that, actually reflected the 16 feelings of those who were at the meeting, that they 17 felt that it was -- that there is a potential problem 18 with the exclusion of all of these patients in 19 general, and this has all been mentioned; that the 20 concept of identifying responders and treating all 21 22 responders caused people a little bit more discomfort

than excluding patients who had an adverse effect because they felt that in clinical practice it would be natural to exclude patients who had an adverse effect.

Having said that, Rob has made the point on this issue that the exclusion of such patients needs to be considered very, very carefully because by excluding those patients from analysis, one is cleansing the database in a way that, one, a physician who would treat a patient in clinical practice wouldn't necessarily know what to expect from the next patient they were planning to treat, but that is inherent in the issue of an open label run-in period.

DR. CALIFF: I think both Tom and Bert raised the issue. I'm disappointed that we've really avoided the positive control issue and acted like it's not something that really needs to be dealt with in this document because there is a place, substantial place and increasingly so, for therapies which do much of the same as available in proven therapies, but have a better side effect profile or are cheaper to make or have some other advantage and not only in heart

failure, but most other areas of therapy.

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Pretending that you can do a placebo control trial ethically is just a sham. It's not reasonable. So to say, "Don't do active control trials. We can never be sure about them," leaves who areas of therapeutic development unaddressed and potentially at risk.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: While you're raising this, let me, if I could -- and, Bob, I want to sort of introduce the topic and then open it up -- let's assume that one met the criteria that Tom has put the risk of forward. and let me. at oversimplification, as I understand the terms, that the active control selected for a positive control trial must be effective; that the degree to which it's effectively must be precisely determined; and that the trial being proposed should be similar in clinical setting to the trials in which the active positive control had been established to be effective.

I think those are the three criteria, Tom?

DR. FLEMING: Yes, that precise at the level of efficacy has to be attributable to the

setting in which the study is going to be conducted.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. The

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. The difficulty one frequently has in heart failure is not the first or the third, but the second, and that is the precision with which one can define a treatment effect is somewhat problematic, and the difficulty that is encountered in the positive trial is to what degree do two treatments need to be demonstrated to be equivalent, and what is meant by equivalence.

In other words, how much uncertainty are you willing to accept that a treatment might be inferior to a specific degree in exchange for the fact that the treatment might be cheaper or safer?

Bob?

DR. TEMPLE: Well, this is a very complicated question. What you, in fact, have to be sure of is not precisely what the effect of the active control is, but that it is at least a certain size, which you then set as your margin, and what you try to show is that the new drug is not to a reasonable confidence interval worse than that.

That assures you that the new drug has

some, any effect more than placebo. Now, usually when that comes to a committee like this, there's a shriek of horror. What do you mean? I'd be giving up 50 percent, 60 percent of my effectiveness?

Of course, when you have shown that a drug is more effective than placebo at .05, we naturally assume the point estimate is the size of the effect, but that's wrong. All we're really sure of is that it's better than nothing.

So in practice when these issues come before this committee, in fact, as they did for thrombolitics, we were able to say with fair confidence that we knew the effect was at least a certain size, and there was a lot of controversy about how to do that. Do you take the worst result ever seen? Do you pool all of the data and take the lower bound? In the 95 percent confidence interval there's no rules on this and not much experience either, but you do it somehow.

And in that case the committee was unhappy with setting a margin that would preserve at least 50 percent of it, but it turns out that to try to be sure

that you've preserved at least, say, 75 percent of the effect gets you into studies in the 40 to 50,000 person range. So it's an extremely difficult problem.

In heart failure, I would predict it's worse, way worse, because the background therapies change so much you have very little way of saying what the effectiveness of any given drug is, and it's a really serious problem, and sometimes the answer is like what I guess it was Lloyd said. Maybe the world is telling you something. Maybe the drugs are good enough so that it's very hard to study them anymore.

The alternatives include studying a group that hasn't been studied yet, if you can still find one, and things like that, but equivalent studies or noninferiority studies are extremely difficult unless there's a lot of data.

But in those cases where there is or there are, then you can design the trials, but it's not simple, and my answer to Rob is, you know, wishing doesn't make it so. You might want to know whether you can do just as well, but you also don't want to give up effectiveness. You want to have a trial that

really is convincing that the new therapy is effective.

DR. CALIFF: Saying it's difficult doesn't do away with the issue.

DR. TEMPLE: Oh, no, and we've got a very extensive, hard to read guideline coming out fairly soon, international guideline, that will address these issues and will say how to do it, but the reality is actually doing it is difficult.

DR. CALIFF: Milton, I do want to link this to the broader question, which I know will keep coming back, of what do we really mean by safe and effective because what we're ending up with not just in heart failure, but in other areas is five, ten, 15 drugs, all of which are effective, none of them studied together in any reasonable way. They're all put out there, and it may be that the interaction among the drugs may be very beneficial or very detrimental, and the lack of safety that occurs may actually not be seen in the studies the way we're doing them.

If we don't do studies that allow us to

substitute or actively replace therapies, we end up with this sort of Tower of Babel out there, people advertising their individual drugs and no one knowing what to do and are combining things in ways that could be very unsafe.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd.

DR. FISHER: I just would like to remind the committee of two things. One is, of course, you just spent half a day, I think it was, on the issue not very long ago, and Bob Finishol gave a large talk, for example.

Secondly, when I presented the comparison with placebo data for clopidadril, which to my mind was just incredibly overwhelming mainly because aspirin had been so extensively studied against placebo, and there was this P like ten to the minus 11, and this committee had trouble with the approval.

I think it's not unfair to say that it took a bit of education by the FDA staff to the committee before the committee began to understand things.

So I'm not sure what this committee would

do with it, but at least at that time I felt the committee had trouble mentally adjusting to the positive control and was focusing on the P value versus the -- the new drug versus the active control rather than seeing what would have happened had there been a placebo, where to my mind that was a slam dunk.

I mean, there was a lot of room for debate about how it did versus the active control, and if this committee is typical, and it's my biased opinion that this committee is one of the best committees within the FDA committee structure; if this committee has trouble, I hesitate to think what might happen with some of the other committees.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd, the example that you cited is a good one because, in fact, that was an example in which I think this committee, the Advisory Committee, for meeting for clopidril, in fact, consisted to a certain degrees of an educational process as to what the concept of a putative placebo was and how one could reach conclusions based on whether a drug worked, in fact, when a placebo controlled trial had not been specifically carried

1 out, but that the active control had been extensively 2 evaluated and was deemed to be unequivocally effective. 3 But, in fact, that educational process was 4 5 carried out in a relatively short period of time, and 6 the committee, in fact, reached the 7 consensus at the end of the day that they were 8 persuaded by the data that was shown. 9 So I guess this is a brief, or perhaps not 10 so brief, way of saying that I think we are all 11 educable. 12 (Laughter.) 13 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay. 14 DR. COHN: Yeah, I wanted to come back to 15 the run-in issue again because I've been sitting here 16 trying to think of an appropriate early efficacy 17 endpoint that could allow one to then continue therapy in the responding patient population. 18 19 And the document sort of suggests that 20 that's not a very good thing to do, but it strikes me 21 that we may not yet have such early efficacy markers. I guess Rob would call them surrogates, but we may 22

eventually have them.

administer drugs. That is, whether it was a blood pressure or a heart rate or a cholesterol reduction or something more sophisticated than that that would identify the responding patient population that would then be eligible for maintaining therapy for long term benefit, it seems to me that's a very appropriate strategy for drug development.

We know these diseases are heterogeneous. Everyone is not going to respond, and to insist then that we have to study the strategy to use a drug rather than to target the drug for the patient population that appropriately responds, I think, is again playing as if we're ignorant, and we should be smarter than that, and we should get more smart.

So it seems to me that we should leave that as a very open strategy, that if one can find a marker that could identify via responding population that it would be appropriate to do that study, and then the labeling, of course, would have to reflect that exact use.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd.

DR. FISHER: Yeah. Just the sort of problem you can run into, Jay, is let's say you're in Class 2 and 3 and you have a moderately long run-in. If you have many deaths, even if you randomize and have a control, you don't have enough deaths in general to pin things down incredibly well.

So let's say you appear to have even a beneficial effect in the run-in period, but the P is .6 or something, .8. So you have a fairly wide confidence interval. If I wanted to argue the case against somebody, I could say, "Well, I'm not going to take the .6, but I'm going to take the upper end of the 95 percent confidence interval to say you might have weeded out people of more risk."

So that the people you finally did randomize, in fact, are not a population that would really represent the entire risk of this drug strategy.

DR. COHN: Well, I think, you know, it will have to be -- eventual analysis will depend on however the data come out, but if you're only going to

1 treat -- and it depends on how long that run-in period 2 is and it depends on what your endpoint of the trial 3 is. But it strikes 4 me that from a 5 philosophical standpoint, that strategy should be 6 considered to be very appropriate if you can correct 7 for the run-in events itself. It depends very much DR. FISHER: Right. 8 9 on the -- like one of the things Tom said, that if you eliminate people because they cannot tolerate a drug, 10 11 it might affect labeling, but to me that doesn't 12 affect labeling at all. I mean the labeling says you 13 should only give the drug to people who tolerate it? That's no big limitation because that's what happens 14 when you actually give the drug. 15 But the events during this period, I think 16 17 are something that we need to sort out better, how we're going to handle it, what we expect to see. 18 Right, and I think, you know, 19 DR. COHN: 20 the role of the regulatory body is obviously to try to close to the decisions that relate

practice, and of course, practice does not give drugs

come

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to people who don't respond or who have adverse 1 effects. 2 3 So trying to link practice with drug approval is obviously positive. 4 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Tom and then Rob. 6 DR. FLEMING: If everything was black and white, Lloyd, I would agree. 7 If it were totally 8 compliance or totally tolerant versus not at all, sure, it's not a limitation, but there are varying 9 10 degrees, and there are many illustrations where 11 someone my be partially tolerant, i.e., being able to take a number of courses of the intervention and 12 13 benefit from that. Jay's comment is reminiscent to me of what 14 15 I see happening in HIV/AIDS setting with viral load, 16 i.e., you have a mechanism; you have a marker. People 17 in that setting are referring to strategies for using interventions to achieve an effect on a marker, i.e., 18 19 you dose until you achieve in HIV/AIDS two log reduction in viral load. 20 That's certainly a very rational way to 21

specify how you might strategically use an agent. You

1 would need to evaluate that strategy though, and you would have to evaluate that strategy by randomizing 2 people to a strategy that dosed until you saw an 3 4 effect on the marker, and what impact does that 5 strategy have on a clinical outcome versus not using the agent at all or against a strategy of using the 6 agent without being driven by effects on the marker. 7 And, in fact, that's what's happening in 8 a number of HIV/AIDS trials. So what you're talking 9 10 about is clinically a rational approach. It creates 11 a different regimen, so to speak, a regimen that's a 12 strategy for delivery of an intervention that's driven 13 by whether you achieve the intended effects on a 14 marker. 15 You still have to look at a randomized 16 assessment of that strategy on clinical endpoints. 17 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob. 18 DR. CALIFF: I think Tom said it well, but 19 I do want to respond to Jay's comments that we 20 clinicians don't treat patients who have adverse 21 effects.

Yes, we do. We treat them until they have

an adverse effect, and then we stop, and if we haven't quantified what the risk is of an adverse effect in the intended population to treat, then I would submit we really don't know what we're doing.

Tom's approach would deal with it, that is, randomize to the strategy of treating until you have an adverse effect and stopping. That obviously increases the sample size substantially and creates a difficulty in that arena.

So we all agree it's a tough problem. I'm not saying I know the answer, but the statement on face actually I disagree with. We do treat people until they have an adverse effect.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, I think the situation is actually more complicated, and it gets back to a discussion that we had at the very beginning of the day in terms of whether labeling actually reflects clinical use because, Ray, correct me if I'm wrong. It wasn't that long ago when this committee would see trials of anti-angina drugs. We don't see that very often, but we used to actually see a fair number of trials of pharmacological agents for the

treatment of angina.

And it wasn't that unusual for patients to be randomized in their trial based on their response to an initial administration of the drug during a runin period, for example, some of the nitrate trials, a lot of the nitrate trials.

And, in fact, in the existing document, anti-anginal guidelines -- I understand it's ten years old -- would, in fact, encourage the use of open label run-in periods where patients would be exercised before and after a sublingual nitroglycerine and be randomized only if they had a certain increase in exercise time after a sublingual nitroglycerine.

That was felt to be very good design because it enriched the patient population and certainly would be consistent with Jay's emphasis on mechanisms. You know, you were finding the mechanism by respond to the drug.

On the other hand, in clinical practice no one does that. Not a single physician in clinical practice ever decides whether to give nitrates or not based on a patient's response to sublingual

1	nitroglycerine.
2	DR. LIPICKY: Well, there are some minor
3	subtle differences here that might be worth talking
4	about. In fact, physicians and patients do that with
5	nitrates. If it doesn't work, they don't take it.
6	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Really?
7	DR. LIPICKY: Yeah.
8	DR. THADANI: Ray, that's not true.
9	DR. LIPICKY: I mean, you know, if they
10	get no relief of their angina, they're not going to
11	pop another sublingual nitro.
12	DR. THADANI: That's not true.
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I don't thinks that's
14	true.
15	DR. LIPICKY: Well, fine, but nonetheless,
16	part of the reason for
17	(Laughter.)
18	DR. LIPICKY: part of the reason for
19	the enrichment trial, if you would, would be that's
20	reasonably applicable to patients, to drug therapies
21	where there are titrated regimens and where the
22	measurement that you need to make is immediate.

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1	That is, you know, you can tell if blood
2	pressure goes down. You can tell if people get their
3	angina relief, et cetera, et cetera. You have the
4	ability to change dose, increase it or decrease it,
5	and it's reasonable to say you ought to be able to
6	tell if this drug works for your patient.
7	So you do the trial in the population in
8	whom you're not getting a lot of bad answers because
9	the drug doesn't work.
LO	That's a totally inapplicable circumstance
L1	to whether or not you're dead or alive and to regimens
L2	where there isn't more than one dose and, in fact, you
L3	can't titrate. If people have died, you can't say,
L 4	"Geez, I'm sorry. I gave you the wrong dose."
L5	And so consequently that's totally
16	inapplicable. That conceptualization is totally
17	inapplicable.
1.8	So it's okay some places, and it has
19	troubles other places.
20	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob.
21	DR. TEMPLE: Nothing stops you from
22	keeping track of how many patients you passed on to

the major trial from the lead-in period. In other 1 words, you could say we screen 1,000 people and only 2 ten percent of them were responsive to nitrate. 3 you take that into account. 4 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: What does labeling 5 6 say? 7 DR. TEMPLE: Labeling can say that. Ι wouldn't say it always does, but as an example, if you 8 want to look at the labeling for Viagra, it will tell 9 you that the patients in trials were screened for 10 response to a single dose, and that all of the data 11 you see from the lengthy trials represent only two 12 thirds of the initial population that were put into it 13 because one third never responded to the single dose 14 initial test. 15 So you can do that. 16 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, but 17 interestingly enough, the response rates that are 18 quoted, for example, for that product are the response 19 20 rates from the placebo controlled trials uncorrected for the initial screen. 21

DR. TEMPLE: Well, maybe that's what gets

1 out someplace, but in labeling it's accurate. 2 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I understand. 3 Udho and then Rob. 4 DR. THADANI: I think the nitrate issue is 5 more complicated. All the trials have not done that There are trials, larger trials, which have 6 way. included all comers, and I think you have to include 7 Otherwise you're selecting population 8 all comers. 9 based on your exercise test. 10 And if I remember correctly, the only reason they looked at the responders was to address 11 the issue of tolerance to nitrates because what you 12 13 want to do is the effect goes away with time, but I 14 think nobody exercises the patient. One thing is that spontaneous angina goes 15 away with sublingual nitroglycerine is not the same 16 17 that exercise will improve tolerance. There are 20 18 percent who actually get worse on exercise tolerance 19 of nitrates, and yet it is not in the labeling. 20 And when you compare trials, that becomes apples and oranges. So I think one has to dissociate. 21 22 The question I was going to raise is,

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again, coming back to placebo. In heart failure 1 trials, there's always add-on therapy, and so I don't 2 3 know how you can do active controls when your treatment, say, looks exciting, but you know doesn't 4 5 improve mortality or morbidity. How ethically can you 6 do an active control in a group of patients where a 7 drug has been shown -- and you have no clue. I'm not 8 talking about the same class of drug. I'm talking 9 about a new class of drug which might have potential, 10 but you have no clue it's going to be as effective. 11 Is it ethical you want to do a trial knowing the fact which is already known that patients 12 are living longer, or should we even talk about actual 13 controls in heart failure when all of the trials have 14 been on add-on therapy, one after two to three, to 15 four drugs now? 16

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho, you mean you think it's totally unethical if someone thinks they have a better ACE inhibitor to do a trial against an ACE inhibitor?

DR. THADANI: I think in the same class it's fine, but to say for a different class, no, no.

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If you're talking about low dose, high dose, that's --1 2 say you've got two ACE. What you're doing then is 3 you're saying, okay, both treatments are effective. I'm going to show one is better. 4 But say suppose you've got a new class of 5 6 drug. Are you going to withhold drugs which have been shown to be effective? I think it's a dilemma, and a 7 8 lot of IRB committees are not going to allow you to 9 withhold drugs which have been approved to save lives. Hospitalization I can live with. 10 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I don't think we 11 should dwell on this. I guess it would just be fair 12 to say, and I'll just speak personally, that I don't 13 see any problem doing an active control trial against 14 an established drug if everyone who participates 15 thinks that the hypothesis being tested is reasonable, 16 17 and I don't think there's anything more complicated than that. 18 Rob. 19 20 DR. CALIFF: I just come back to a couple of things. 21

On Bob's comment, I think Lloyd actually

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made a very important point which may be worth emphasizing a little bit more in the document about run-ins. You know, if there's a ten percent response rate and those people go forward and do better in a placebo controlled trial, the critical issue and the other 90 percent is really where they had events because if they just got a headache or something, that's fine, but if they dropped over dead or had worsening heart failure, for example, it seems there is an obligation to quantify that somewhat since that is what is going to be the basis for use in clinical practice.

And there is this very difficult problem that was alluded to. If the labeling gives the treatment effect in that ten percent, as we go forward in society we've got more good treatments than we can afford to pay for. We're in the era of so-called evidence based medicine. Comparative evidence is usually based on a perception that you're starting with a population in which you intend to treat.

So you end up with sort of a better looking scenario than what you would actually get in

clinical practice, making it very difficult to make 1 decisions. 2 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: think 3 Ι we've probably exhausted this. It's time to take a break. 4 The intent after the break -- break for lunch, yeah --5 the intent after the break is to discuss Section 5 at 6 length, which is divided into evaluation of clinical 7 evaluation of long term outcome, 8 status, and evaluation and analysis. We are going to be spending 9 10 some time on that. We are not going to be discussing safety 11 today, and if we have time, we'll try to summarize 12 some of the approvable indications. 13 But there has not been а lot of 14 phraseology the approvable the 15 disagreement on indications in the past. So we're going to try to 16 focus primarily on Section 5 when we return. 17 And we will come back at one o'clock and 18 promptly at one. 19 (Whereupon, at 12:08 p.m., the meeting was 20 recessed for lunch, to reconvene at 1:00 p.m., the 21 22 same day.)

AFTERNOON SESSION

(1:10 p.m.)

**

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The next topic for discussion this afternoon, we're going to continue our discussion on the guidelines for heart failure and focus this afternoon's discussion on efficacy endpoints.

Before doing so, let me outline, just describe very briefly the concept is to take all of the comments we have received today and to continue a discussion about revising these guidelines to a point where they may become official.

The process by which that would occur or the time frame in which that would occur has not been defined, and I think that the present draft at least provides a useful framework for ongoing discussions and, in fact, may be the only written document for a while.

So please take this document in the context of the discussions which have occurred today, and if you combine those two, you might have a pretty realistic idea of what the final outcome might look

1 | like.

The efficacy endpoints are divided into two sections, the evaluation of clinical status and the evaluation of risk of a major event. Paragraph 2 under Section 5 summarizes the rationale for such a division, but let me emphasize, having said that, these two may be very much related to each other, and it is somewhat artificial to separate the two.

Lloyd?

DR. FISHER: I just wanted to mention one point of information I found useful. The Cardio-Renal Advisory Committee minutes now go on the Internet when they get them. So you can go into the FDA. In the context of taking the document with the discussion, that will be available on the Internet.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And I think that there are plans right now to put this document onto the Internet at some time in the next week, probably as is because it won't be revised in the next week.

Okay. Barry Massie is going to lead off the discussion on evaluation of clinical status.

DR. MASSIE: Well, I'm going to try to be

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brief, although I think I may stimulate longer discussion later.

Milton asked me to talk about the symptomatic endpoints, and contrary to some people's believe, symptoms still do count, I think, in the process of approving drugs for heart failure. So they still can serve, I think, as the primary evidence of efficacy, but they must be clinically meaningful, that is, something a patient feels, at least as judged by the patient or perhaps by the physician.

Physical signs and physiologic surrogates in the current document and particularly hemodynamics, for instance, as a physiologic surrogate are not probably in themselves sufficient for approval.

Now, I did want to bring up one point that in reading through the document I couldn't identify, which is whether or not these guidelines applied to diuretics for the use of heart failure. Perhaps we can discuss that later because there I think physical signs, if one includes weight and other signs of volume retention, might serve as a primary endpoint for approval of a diuretic in the management of heart

failure, although that might be labeled a different indication.

They should be measured over at least a reasonable period of time. The current document says six to 48 hours for IV drugs. I would believe that six hours is probably a little bit short for some of our drugs, but clearly over a matter of hours to days, and six to 12 months for symptomatic types of endpoints with chronic oral drugs.

Now, having said one could likely get approved by showing consistent improvement in symptoms, I think it's also clear in this document that you at least need some estimate of the effect of morbidity and mortality, as well, for long term therapy and probably even for short term therapy, although a different type of estimate.

Now, there are basically two types of symptomatic endpoints now, and this is my own categorization. There are symptomatic endpoints as the patient tells you about them, and the symptom scores have been used, various types, visual analogue scores, rating from one to whatever. Most of the

symptomatic scores focus on symptoms related to dyspnea with some level of activity.

And then the global assessment of change, which is basically compared to baseline how does one feel on usually a scale of one to five or one to seven.

It's important in using these, I think, several points. All of these symptoms actually are usually measured by multiple ways in the same protocol. So there's a real multiplicity problem here, and therefore, I think that one needs to really pre-specify the critical measures. Otherwise you can have five different scales. Unless you know which one is going to count, I think one enters into a morass.

The other issue is, of course, the investigators can easily influence the patients on how they feel, and that needs to be avoided if at all possible.

And then there's the investigator determined endpoints. New York Heart Association class is often thought to be basically a symptom determined classification that is relatively

objective. I think it's far from that, but not a bad way to assess heart failure as it turns out, looking at the results over studies.

But I think all of us who have read down

New York Heart Association class are aware of changes

in creatinine, changes in exercise measurements, and

deal with more than just what the patients volunteers.

And global assessment of change also would probably be a multi-determined function, not just symptoms, but if the physician is performing at all he knows about the patient.

at the bottom. In rating it you shouldn't be influenced by recognizable drug effects. For instance, a beta blocker that drops the heart rate by 15 points might even be something that we considered good, and that might make us feel better and say the patient is doing better globally.

If it's not something we necessarily feel is good, it still might allow us to recognize a drug effect that we think is good. So that type of bias is there, and therefore, it makes mention of an

independent assessor.

The problem is if you use an independent assessor, you also lose all of this ancillary data which I think has value that we would enter into our New York Heart Association class and our global assessment. I think that an independent assessor should be avoided if at all possible. I think it makes a complicated evaluation.

Now, other types of symptomatic endpoints are really two others. Exercise tolerance, which I guess has been our oldest standard for improving symptoms of heart failure since the modern improvement goes, and I think although it's been discouraged and the document gives lots of cautions about the problems with exercise tolerance, a consistent improvement in exercise tolerance could certainly serve as the primary basis of approval, given the other evidence we need about safety, and so on.

They can be measured in many ways. The document, I think, carefully avoids trying to tell people how to measure because we really still don't know.

1 think it's a problem because 2 variable for sure, and because we know that it doesn't necessarily capture drug benefit. Even drugs that 3 improve symptoms may not improve exercise tolerance, 4 and the flip side has been that some drugs that 5 improve exercise tolerance have other adverse effects. 6 Nonetheless, I think it is a way to 7 approach demonstrating improvement in symptoms. 8 life, I think, is 9 Quality of problematic in part because of the multiplicity issue 10 that comes up very frequently. Hardly anybody will 11 agree on one way to measure quality of life. So there 12 13 are many scales. I'm involved in one study now where they 14 have four because they can't decide which one to 15 16 eliminate. One may turn out positive, but then how will one interpret it? 17 So certainly you have to have a very 18 careful analytic plan worked out, and my own bias is 19 that these measurements may not actually measure drug 20 effect or harm in a heart failure specific manner, and 21

my own bias is that this should not serve as a primary

measure for approval.

And lastly, the composite endpoint, which clearly is sort of a favorite approach in this document, and it's probably a good approach because everybody counts, and it mixes together the major types of endpoints that we look for in a morbidity and mortality study, but while at the same time assessing symptomatic measures in the other patients.

However, it doesn't get away from any of the problems with those individuals' symptomatic measurements, and I think we would fool ourselves if we think that this turns out to be, you know, the eureka for how to do it.

I think classification remains difficult, and what I think is most difficult in many of these trials, although if you declare the time when you're going to measure it, you can do that, is that time dependance is a very important factor.

Many patients, I would say most patients, feel worse and better in the same trial compared to baseline at some point. So you could arbitrarily say three months or six months is the time you're going to

measure it, but that might not tell you whether the drug is working or not.

And associated with the patient feeling up

and down at various times is that there are therapy changes. Maybe they get worse. They get a better therapy added on. Then they feel better, and what are you measuring? We already talked about that, I think, in terms of morbidity and mortality studies, but it is equally true for symptoms.

So we really haven't defined, I think, the perfect way to look at symptoms, but I think that at least with drugs that have across the board positive effects that some of these do improve, and it seems like the more subjective they are, asking the patient whether they're feeling better or not seems to be the moist powerful discriminate between a drug that we know works by other measures and one that doesn't.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Barry, thank you very much.

Let me just clarify one thing. In the document that Barry referred to, the concept of an independent assessor is mentioned in the document, was

not mentioned, by the way, in any old versions of this document.

Entirely, and the document makes this clear, if in order to avoid the concept of confounding, in other words, drugs may produce toxic effects or whatever, and if that's the case, then the independent assessor might help to solve the problem.

The creation of an independent assessor, however, creates problems because by the very nature. Because it divorces the assessor from the usual interactions with the patient, it actually may be a more sterilized approach because usually the interaction with the physician and patient occurs at so many different levels, including a nonverbal level, that, you know, an independent assessor, in fact, may not get the New York Heart class or the global assessment quite right.

I think you're referring to that, but then, again, if there's some toxic or confounding influence, it may be the only way to do it or maybe they could do it both ways. It would get complicated.

Ileana.

DR. PINA: Yeah, I want to echo what Barry said about trying to find some kind of composite score. I think when symptoms become difficult to measure that we must look for consistency, and if the majority of symptoms are on the improvement side and one isn't, then we may want to add some weight to some symptoms versus others, but I think that consistency may be more important than just taking one assessment alone.

And I agree that the New York Heart Association, the way it's defined is not really the way it's used, and I think when we give someone an NYHA, we really put together everything, including the creatinine and how much they can walk and how much they can do.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Marv.

DR. KONSTAM: I agree with just about everything Barry said, except I'd like to propose reframing it actually, and I've talked about this before, and that is to say that aside from keeping people alive, the only other thing that you want to do is influence the quality of their life, and

specifically when you're talking about therapy for diseases, you're looking to change something about the disease that is adversely affecting the quality of that life.

And I want to distinguish between the overall concept and direction of assessing the quality of the patient's life, distinguish that from health related quality of life questionnaires, which are specific instruments, but that I would suggest that everything that you talked about, in fact, are snippets or pieces of things that adversely influence quality of life.

Now, I think the reason this is important is that, you know, so, for example, if you're talking about symptom scores, well, I think you said that symptoms are only important if they're important to the patient, and it really is implicit in there if it's altering, affecting the patient's life.

So edema, for example, might or might not be an important symptom if it's not adversely affecting life.

Now, those symptom scores are incorporated

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into quality of life questionnaires, although
generally they try to take it a step further and
assess the degree to which the symptom is influencing

4 the patient's life.

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So I would like to propose that actually what we've got here is a set of measurements all directed toward assessing whether or not the disease is affecting life adversely and whether or not the therapy is benefitting. We can look at scores related to symptoms that are clinically relevant. We can look at how the patient performs on a treadmill as an indication of whether or not they're conducting their daily living appropriately, if we believe that. can look at questionnaires under circumstances, and we can count the number of times the patient is hospitalized on the grounds that hospitalization adversely affects the patient's life as well.

And so all of these are things that are aiming at trying to figure out what's important to the patient.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho.

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DR. THADANI: I'm surprised that either the investigator or independent assessor should be responsible for quantitating. The patient comes to you because he's short of breath or he's fatigued. These are patient symptoms, and I think they're the ones who should be the assessors how they are feeling.

And you know, obviously we sometimes as investigators give them leading questions of how many blocks you walk or whatever. So I think if the patient can read the form, maybe they're not Maybe their drug therapy is no good. sensitive. So if the patient says he's short of breath when he walks a block, it's his statement. So even NYHA takes all of that into account.

So I don't know why an independent assessor should be able to influence if one goes by what patient ticks on the piece of paper.

Could you clarify that? Because these are all -- forget about the exercise part, but if you give the patient a symptom, he's fatigued, he's short of breath. Edema may be a sign unless it is limiting. His legs are so swollen he can't walk or he's

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troubled.

Why should the investigator assess differently than -- unless you're biasing the patient. I realize that, but if you just give them a simple form and he can't read the form maybe the nurse or somebody could just read it to him and you tick it, why should it be a classification different?

DR. MASSIE: Well, let me give a couple of examples. I mean, first of all, I didn't say that you had to do all of them. I was going through the types of things that have been used for endpoints, and there are pluses and there are minuses.

But, for instance, we've tried to ask the patient how they feel in the acute setting with acute IV therapy, and it really has to do with more whether we're giving them too much pain by the way we're sticking them, how their catheter is feeling, all types of catheters, whether or not they're getting disoriented with an ICU psychosis, and the physician probably is in the better situation to assess in that setting whether the patient is better or not because he's bringing not only his assessment of dyspnea, but

also his knowledge of the creatinine and a number of 1 2 other parameters. 3 In a chronic setting, it may be more reasonable to make your primary endpoint a patient 4 5 oriented one. On an acute setting it may not be. But that being said, where we've used 6 global scores, there seems to be marked concordance in 7 the ACE inhibitor experience and the beta blockers 8 9 between the physician global score and the patient global score, which could mean that they're not 10 independent measures, that the physician is telling 11 the patient what to say or the physician is listening 12 to what the patient says, hopefully the latter, but I 13 think they're both good measures. 14 And the real question is when you write 15 your protocol, and I don't know how to get into this, 16 but this is, I think, the key part of this question --17 DR. THADANI: Especially if you're going 18 19 to --DR. MASSIE -- is you have five or six 20 different measures, three quality of life scales, two 21 22 symptom scales, New York Heart Association, and you

know, you're right. The committee in the end is going 1 to look through the whole thing and try to sort it 2 3 out, but they're going to look at what you said is the important one. 4 And I'm not sure that in all settings the 5 6 important one is the same one. I agree with you in the 7 DR. THADANI: acute situation when the patient is acutely dyspneic. 8 In the chronic one I'd give you an example of two days 9 10 ago. I was seeing a patient, and he said, 11 "Well, I really can't do very much." According to 12 13 that maybe, you know, he can't walk a few blocks. could be Class 3, but I said, "What did you do today?" 14 He said he walked from the car parking lot 15 16 without stopping, but I think I'm creating a bias by putting a leading question. Then the objectivity 17 comes in what he did on that particular day, but 18 knowing what he did in the last few days. 19 personally feel since it's 20 So symptomatic driven therapy, short of hospitalization 21 or mortality or objective exercise testing, we should 22

about science with objectivity. We have a different issue, but I think these are patient symptoms, and I don't think whether an investigator or a blinded observer should make any difference if one just asks the patient to tick what he feels.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, I actually think this is sort of a silly conversation because these two are incredibly interdependent. The way that a patient feels is filtered through how the questions are framed and how the physician asks them, and in the vast majority of cases, there is no direct -- you know, a patient doesn't fill out the case report form.

So there's a filtering process here, and that filtering process is inevitable. The reason that they're highly correlated is because there is both an observer based reason why they're highly correlated, and presumably a clinically based reason why they're highly correlated, and I don't think anyone should pretend that these are independent assessments, nor should anyone pretend that any of the assessments that Barry has suggested are independent assessments.

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They're, you know, correlated to varying degrees.

I think that the reason why there's so many is because none of them are perfect, and none of them present a complete picture, and in fact, if there were one terrific one, then Barry would have said, "This is really a terrific one," and the guidelines would say there's really a terrific one, and there just isn't one like that.

Ileana.

DR. PINA: Just to amplify on that, many of these instruments have never been tested in different populations, and so you don't know (a) the reproducibility. You don't know if you can capture even small changes in how the patient feels or how much they're able to do, and that's why you may want to select a few whose specifications do apply to the population that you're studying.

Asking somebody how do they feel about not being able to work when they're really a Class 4 patient, they may not have worked for years. It may not be as relevant as to someone who was recently diagnosed and can't work.

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me just ask everyone a question which everyone is talking around 2 3 but has not directly addressed. I think everyone in this committee thinks 4 5 that because there are five or six possible ways of 6 assessing clinical status and they're all, in part, correlated and certainly interdependent. How do you 7 design a statistical plan to deal with that? 8 9 Because Ileana made a very important 10 She says, you know, we feel very, very point. comfortable if all of these measures were to be 11 12 concordant, and I heard you specifically say that, and 13 also heard you specifically not define what concordant 14 meant. 15 Ι it mean could be directionally 16 It could all have a certain P value or whatever, but I think the idea is that you had to get 17 18 the sense that everything was internally consistent. 19 The problem is that you could then take 20 five measures -- I'll just use the word "five" 21 arbitrarily -- and say that there are five primary endpoints or you could pick one that you think sort of 22

has the greatest likelihood of success and say that's the primary and four are secondary, or you can take your alpha and split it, or you can do a whole host of things.

And that may sound like an artificial question because Ileana would say, "Well, maybe it doesn't matter what you specify as the primary. You're going to look at the internal consistency and concordance regardless.

But there is the issue of alpha spending here, and what you say is the most important, and part of the reason that the composite is mentioned here is the composite is an approach, not the approach to trying to get a mixture of measures, but making it one measure so that the alpha is preserved.

Can Lloyd and Tom and Dave help us here?

Because we think that these are all reasonable measures, all of which have limitations and inadequacies. We would feel better if they were internally concordant. We would have perhaps some difficulty picking one above all the others. You didn't say that, but I think that you feel that way.

You know, what is the solution? What are the options available to the sponsors in the design of clinical trials?

Lloyd.

DR. FISHER: Well, number one, there are a number of existing options. There are standard

a number of existing options. There are standard things for multivariant endpoints like weighting them equally, combining them all. You could take the minimum P value, for example, adjust for all of the multiple comparisons. You could take the average.

But the best way to do this, but the problem is it would just take a phenomenal amount of time, in my opinion. I've thought quite a bit about this strength of evidence. It would be sort of to take every possible pattern of outcome, including the variability in the test, not just the estimated effect, and present it to this panel and say, "Here's two outcomes. Which of these two is more convincing evidence of treatment effect?"

And get a one dimensional ordering, which would be very, very complex because it would integrate all of the medical knowledge. If you had that one

dimensional ordering, then we would attach probabilities to the top five percent using something called the randomization test.

The problem is getting anyone to put in

The problem is getting anyone to put in the time and effort to do this. It might be possible, however, to begin to approach this to get some idea of the tradeoffs.

We've seen in recent history that consistency isn't necessarily enough. If you miss your primary endpoint, that gets into the middle of a huge debate.

And so, I mean, something has to be done. It's best if it's done prospectively, and the best solutions, I think, have not yet been developed because it's somewhat subject matter specific, and it doesn't just involve the statisticians. You have to get people very knowledgeable clinically in the field to help you set up what things are more impressive than others.

As Tom said, and he's absolutely right, it doesn't make sense that if you have a placebo in one dose and you have .02, you say, "Ah, ha, we've shown

1 it." You have two doses. They're each significant at 2 the same .02 level. This is more evidence in favor of 3 the drug, but if we do the usual statistical 4 adjustment, you know, we say, "Gee" -- well, I guess 5 not .02 because Bonferroni would do it -- .03, and 6 you'd say, "Gee, too bad. You just missed it." 7 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd, I was hoping 8 to hear something other than we haven't solved this 9 problem yet. 10 (Laughter.) 11 DR. MASSIE: Let me just try something out. Let's say we have five scores. 12 13 DR. FISHER: But let me say one thing. 14 There are ways to solve the problem, and the best ways 15 involve ordering. If you think mathematically and apply the outcomes, you think you're in this five 16 17 dimensional space. 18 You want to decide what sorts of outcomes 19 are more convincing than others, and if you do things 20 very simplistically, which is concentrate on one 21 endpoint or average them all, et cetera, that does not 22 really encompass what happens some somebody who knows

the field or knows what they're talking about looks at the data because you might look at it and say four out of the five are significant, and this fifth one has this incredible variability that's really not a very good quality of life measurement in this population at We never should have used it, but as mentioned, you have to consider not only treatment effect of variability, but Ι think there are solutions, but they would take a lot of time.

DR. MASSIE: Let me propose a simple solution, but I don't know if it has any validity. This may be a total joke, which is let's say you get three scores or five scores, New York Heart, composite, you know, the global score of the patient, the global score of the physician, put in quality of life, put in some actual measure of dyspnea on various activities.

either better, worse, or the same at the end of the trial, and you can then say, well, you have, in Treatment A, you have, you know, 37 percent of your people had five better, and you could get something

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like that.

Everybody is classified as to whether or how many they had better, and you get a P value for which group comes out better with your five scores, and you know, how many had five better, four better, three better, two better, one better, or worse, or you could put it all together and you get one composite clinical score.

Therefore, you have one primary endpoint, one alpha spent P equals .05. Is that something that one could do?

This is not taking into account that we know what's better because I think we don't really know what's better.

DR. KONSTAM: You know, without knowing exactly how to do it, I'd just like to second the concept because basically what we're saying is that we're not looking at five different things. We're really looking at one thing, and we're looking at it from five different spots, from five different angles.

So, you know, I think however this is approached, I think that it's worth -- and of course,

doing it prospectively, identifying, you know, how are 1 we going to -- what kind of hierarchy or what kind of 2 3 mathematical structure are we going to place on these different parameters of really the same thing that 4 we're trying to look at. 5 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Marv, as you know, 7 and Barry knows this as well, there have been various 8 attempts to create these composites over the past 9 several years, and each attempt differs. not surprisingly, from every other attempt. 10 11 One proposal that Barry just said was, well, let's give everyone a five and, you know, 12 measure everything and "compositize" it that way. 13 14 There have been attempts in the past to 15 combine two or three or four. I think what we're all saying is that there isn't a single perfect measure. 16 17 If you want to use composites because that is a more 18 comprehensive, maybe less biased way of looking at it, 19 that's okay, but you must specify ahead of time what 20 is in that composite and how it will be analyzed. 21 I think everyone is saying that. 22 DR. KONSTAM: Yeah, Milton. I agree

completely, and let me just add that, you know, every new study that's done, I mean, I guess the investigators or sponsor takes a little bit different approach, and I would contend that it's based on whatever advice they have had or it may be based on the last positive study that's been published or been in their experience.

You know, I'd like to suggest that we actually have a couple of therapies now in heart failure that pretty much the entire community is getting to believe work, like ACE inhibitors and beta blockers, and we have an awful lot of studies that have been done with an awful lot of things measured, you know, with those two classes of agents, and I'll go so far as to say that.

And it may be worth, you know, now taking a step back and looking at the body of data that we have on these agents and see if we can go and glean how to approach the challenge that Barry is raising.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And, Marv, you may or may not know, but actually Bob Temple asked me to do that, I guess, a year ago.

I should have quessed. DR. KONSTAM: 1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And without getting 2 3 into any details about what was a very detailed and long analysis that went on for pages and pages, the 4 short of it is if you look at all of the trials of 5 what might be deemed effective drugs, and by the way, 6 in the analysis what was deemed an effective drug was 7 a drug that ended up being approved by the FDA for 8 9 heart failure, totally arbitrary definition. (Laughter.) 10 11 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But, you 12 there's probably a correlation between the 13 approval and efficacy; that if one did that, the two measures that emerged as being the most sensitive to 14 a treatment effect was New York Heart class and the 15 global assessment across the board. 16 Exercise tolerance was very --17 DR. CALIFF: Where can we find this in the 18 literature? 19 DR. LIPICKY: Milton, you didn't do --20 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: You can't find this 21 in the literature. 22

1	DR. LIPICKY: Milton, you didn't really do
2	what's being talked about.
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right. I
4	approximated it.
5	DR. LIPICKY: What you did was look at
6	each thing individually.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right.
8	DR. LIPICKY: And you decided whether it
9	was positive or negative on some basis.
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right.
11	DR. LIPICKY: And then you had yes/noes,
12	and what you're talking about is having some kind of
13	a graded thing that puts it all together.
14	DR. MASSIE: Yeah, but this would be the
15	preliminary data that decided how you would design the
16	things you had put in the composite score.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The difficulty in
18	doing the analysis the way that you might want it done
19	or Marv would ideally want it done is that not all
20	measures were evaluated in all trials, and that's a
21	huge problem.
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Quality of life instruments were not part

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of every trial. How do you what do you do with
that missing data? You can't deal with that.
DR. LIPICKY: Right.
CHAIRPERSON PACKER: You can't deal with
that statistically.
DR. LIPICKY: But as I heard the question
that you formulated about half an hour ago, it was if,
in fact, all of these things measure a patient's
interaction with their environment, how could they all
do what they did here if, in fact, nothing happened at
all or it went in the adverse direction, and that is
really looking at all of the data concomitantly, not
at any one of them separately, and then drawing
conclusions for any one separately.
CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right.
DR. LIPICKY: So there has been no look
CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right.
DR. LIPICKY: at the past data from the
vantage point of would it work if you tried to do
that. I don't know.
CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. No, that's
correct because what was not available to me at the

1	time this was done was the individual data basis.
2	What was available to me were the summaries submitted
3	by the sponsors on behalf of the drugs, and of course,
4	the analyses submitted by the sponsors were taken at
5	face value.
6	DR. LIPICKY: Correct.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: So but at least it's
8	I don't want to even remotely consider it to say
9	that it's an adequate representation of what Marv and
10	Barry are suggesting, but it was the first step in
11	that process in terms of a literature review has been
12	taken.
13	DR. KONSTAM: Just out of curiosity, did
14	you look at drugs that don't work as well as drugs
15	that do work?
16	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The problem with
17	doing drugs that don't work, there's a real problem.
18	One, there aren't too many NDAs submitted
19	for drugs that don't work.
20	DR. COHN: Well, how are you defining
21	DR. LIPICKY: Don't work and work.
22	DR. COHN: No, I think this is serious.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay, let's just
2	the idea was to work with the database, and the only
3	database I could get was a database that was FOI-able.
4	DR. LIPICKY: And those are approvals.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right, and those are
6	approvals. So there was an operational limitation of
7	what one could get their hands on.
8	DR. KONSTAM: Well, remembering what you
9	said, the New York Heart Association and global
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah.
11	DR. KONSTAM: assessment, I would
12	suggest that I'm not sure what we learned from that
13	because I think all you're saying is that in the
14	groups of agents that have been approved, those things
15	got better.
16	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The only reason why
17	that statement has some significance other than being
18	circular, although it may appear to be circular, is
19	that in none of the trials that were submitted as part
20	of the NDAs for approval was New York Heart class or
21	the global assessment the primary endpoint.

So what was interesting about the process

1 of review was that the primary endpoint in almost all of the trials was exercise tolerance, which may or may 2 not have been favorably affected by therapy. 3 New York Heart class and the global 4 5 almost invariably measured assessment was 6 secondary endpoint. So, in other words, it could have 7 been entirely self-fulfilling in that the primary endpoint, if it was favorably affected, led to an NDA, 8 but that's not the case here. 9 DR. LIPICKY: But if you say that you're 10 going to try to look at them all together, the 11 12 designation of primary and secondary is irrelevant, and indeed, the way you started to look at it, there 13 is no method that has been applied to that data. So 14 one doesn't know how it would come out. 15 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And in order to truly 16 be able to do this right, one shouldn't limit their 17 database, their analysis to a trial submitted as part 18 of NDAs. 19 DR. LIPICKY: That's correct. 20 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: One should ask every 21 22 sponsor who has done a trial in heart failure, whether

1	of not the trial worked of not, to submit the database
2	so we could use as comprehensive a database as
3	possible.
4	DR. LIPICKY: So how can we work out a
5	method? Does anyone have a suggestion?
6	DR. THADANI: Milton, what about the
7	trials in which the drug had adverse effect on
8	mortality and might have improved your NYHA? Have you
9	included those or just
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, yeah, all the
11	trials that led this
12	DR. THADANI: But you said only approved
13	drugs.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah.
15	DR. THADANI: And these are drugs which
16	have not been approved.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, no, no.
18	Flosequinine was in the database. There were five
19	trials with flosequinine and drug was approved.
20	DR. THADANI: So what you're trying to
21	say, that there's a dichotomy even with your symptoms
22	called to the outcome. I mean you know.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho, it's a totally
2	separate question.
3	DR. THADANI: But no, no. You're saying
4	that exercise doesn't go along, and that's why
5	exercise is a bad parameter, because it doesn't jibe
6	with symptoms core necessarily, and yet symptoms core
7	doesn't gibe with mortality.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, Udho. You're
9	confusing two separate issues.
10	DR. THADANI: Okay.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I simply described
12	what was done, which was entirely limited and
13	circumscribed based on what was available to be
14	analyzed.
15	DR. LIPICKY: So who will provide the
16	requisite statistical input? I'll volunteer to try to
17	get the data. Who will do it?
18	PARTICIPANT: Do what?
19	DR. LIPICKY: Give the statistical input.
20	There's a statistical method that has to be evolved.
21	You have to somehow another test the null hypothesis
22	looking at all of the data simultaneously. ETT is

part of that.

DR. FISHER: Well, Ray, if I could get the databases and you would support the program or no support for me, I would analyze the data.

DR. LIPICKY: Well, I will support the program morally and intellectually. Do you mean financially?

(Laughter.)

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me just say that there's another issue here, which makes the analysis even more complex. If one looks at the literature and looks at all of the trial submitted as part of approved NDAs, the analysis of New York Heart class or global assessment or exercise tolerance in trials done in the 1980s is not necessarily the way that data would be analyzed in 1990.

DR. LIPICKY: No, that is absolutely true, but that has nothing to do with trying to work out a method and seeing if the data that exists, in fact, would say that these drugs work because right now the data that exist do not say these drugs really work outstandingly, right? I mean, it's a very tough call.

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So the question is if you took that same data, looked at it with a different method that was everything together, would that change your impression of what the power of those data are?

Then you could argue about whether it would be reasonable to apply that method to current data because the medical milieu changed, but at the present time, we're not accomplishing anything.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay?

DR. COHN: Can I make a couple of comments here? Because this is a very difficult area, and each of these measures that have been surfaced, exercise, quality of life, symptom scores, et cetera, do not vary in concert, as we well know.

However, if one looks at the subgroup that has a marked improvement in quality of life or an exercise tolerance, one finds that all of the measures then do vary together so that the magnitude of effect is very important in convincing us that this is a real change.

And one of the problems that we've had in looking at prior trials is that we have focused on P

values of the significance, say, of the improvement of exercise, even though the magnitude of that effect is minuscule, but the P value comes out less than .05, and we, therefore, conclude that the drug is effective, and that's within the noise range, and it is not reproducible, and it's luck of the draw often more than anything else.

And, in fact, when one looks at mean responses of all of these variables in the trials that we have carried out to date, the magnitude of effect is very small, and yet the magnitude of effect on mortality and morbidity has turned out to be very large.

very poor markers for effective therapy in this disease. Now, what I would suggest is an alternate way to analyze it, and that is to really focus on since not all patients respond the same to a drug -- I mean, this is a broken record, and we all know that, but we pay lip service to it. We don't often incorporate it into our thinking process -- it would be perhaps more useful to look at those individuals,

set above which you're going to look at the endpoint 1 and say let's find out between the placebo and the 2 treatment arm how many people improve above this 3 threshold level where we're confident that is a real 4 effect. 5 And that gives us a lot more comfort in 6 knowing what fraction of patients are going to get 7 better rather than trying to look at a mean response 8 in the large population where the changes are very 9 small and there's a lot of noise. 10 And when you do that, I think you'll find 11 that most of these measures will vary in concert. 12 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob. 13 Well, it's certainly worth DR. TEMPLE: 14 trying that, but my prediction is it won't help you at 15 If you set response characteristics and say, all. 16 "Okay. This much is a good response. This much is a 17 weak response, " you'll find the same thing. 18 there's that problem is here The 19 tremendous variability in both the treatment and 20 That's why the means aren't very placebo groups. 21 different. You'll also find the categorical responses

won't be very different either. 1 That's a prediction. We haven't done it 2 that way, but that's what you're going to find. 3 DR. COHN: But you would get the number of 4 responders rather than the mean response. 5 DR. TEMPLE: You will, but it'll be closer 6 than you want even though you think these drugs work 7 because the mean responses and the categorical 8 If one were very responses are closely related. 9 different, then the other would be very different, 10 too. 11 I just want to make one point. 12 should be too surprised at this. You find the same 13 thing in almost every therapeutic area we look at. 14 It's characteristic in trials of antidepressants to 15 look at four separate measures of depression. There's 16 a global, and there's a specific depression scale 17 measure, and there's a section of the depression scale 18 and so on, and you see the same kinds of things. 19 There's tremendous variability from study 20 to study and imperfect consistency within a study. 21

You see the same thing with antihistamines in allergic

rhinitis.

These diseases are hard to categorize, and there's a lot of day-to-day variability. It may not be that it's because the drugs don't work very well or the measures are poor. It just may be characteristic of the way life is.

The other thing, Milton, is what I remember is your analyses of the ACE inhibitor trials, and I thought all of the endpoints were about equally good or equally poor depending on how you look at it, not very much difference between them in how likely they were to be positive. New York Heart wasn't all that much different from exercise.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, Bob. I guess what I should have said before I even said that there was any tendency for one measure or another is that in no case was a single measure consistently indicative of a drug effect in all trials done with that agent.

DR. TEMPLE: Right, but the other thing to remember is your test was was this result significant, and you didn't try to get into did it lean right and other questions that one could get into.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And frequently it
2	leaned right, but didn't have a nominal P value
3	associated with it.
4	All of these can only be addressed by what
5	Ray was saying before, which is get the data and
6	actually do the analyses.
7	I will honestly tell you that such a
8	project is an immense undertaking.
9	DR. TEMPLE: Could we make very clear what
10	the project is to do? I'm a little vague on that.
11	DR. LIPICKY: I see it perfectly. It's
12	two phases. One phase is for somebody who knows
13	statistics, math, and probability to sit down and
14	decide how the null hypothesis would be denied when
15	you look at all of the things together and say how
16	could it be that these numbers went in the direction
17	they went if, in fact, this treatment did not alter
18	the state of the patient. I mean that's really the
19	question.
20	The second part of the project is to by
21	patient by patient get the primary evaluations of each
22	thing that was evaluated, every patient's symptom

1	score, every patient's New York Heart class for every
2	visit so that you can start with raw data because
3	there's no way to reconstruct change from baseline,
4	which probably is the analysis that would need to be
5	done on an individual-by-individual basis on the means
6	that are usually submitted in data.
7	So you'd have to get all of the trials'
8	raw data together and try this method on it and see if
9	because certainly the way Milton approached it made
10	it look dismal, right? I mean we all agree with that.
11	DR. TEMPLE: No, I don't think it looked
12	dismal.
13	DR. LIPICKY: Well
14	DR. TEMPLE: It looked like what I
15	predicted it to look like.
16	DR. LIPICKY: Well, fine, but that is
17	dismal.
18	DR. TEMPLE: But that is depression.
19	DR. LIPICKY: Right.
20	DR. TEMPLE: It looks like depression. It
21	looks like antihistamines. It looks like angina. It
22	looks like everything.

1	DR. LIPICKY: Look. Depression is not the
2	sine qua non of knowledge, right?
3	DR. TEMPLE: It looks like every
4	symptomatic measurement I know of.
5	DR. LIPICKY: Fine. That's fine, but that
6	may be because no one looks at the data they collect
7	properly, and if it were looked at properly for drugs
8	that really work, it would be obvious. The thing
9	that's being said is the way in which we usually treat
10	this data may not be the way it should be treated, and
11	is there another method that could be devised to look
12	at it differently?
13	DR. TEMPLE: I mean, that's possible, Ray,
14	but there's one crucial thing to remember on this, is
15	these are all measurements of exactly the same thing,
16	and that makes
17	DR. LIPICKY: Well, I understand that.
18	DR. TEMPLE: These are not remotely
19	independent measurements. What you've got is the same
20	thing with a lot of noise. That makes a very tough
21	thing to analyze, I think.
22	DR LIPICKY. Well and you may be right.

1	That is, if someone went to the effort of doing what
2	is being talked about, it would turn out to lead to
3	nowhere. I mean I don't know that it would do
4	DR. FISHER: Well, one comment on Jay's
5	approach. It can certainly be done, but it will
6	increase sample size substantially to define the
7	people you're sure are responding and compare those
8	proportions.
9	DR. THADANI: Ray, surely this is a
10	biological variation. We wake up in the morning. We
11	can't sleep at night. We feel lousy. The next day we
12	don't.
13	So you know, all of these will have a lot
14	of noise just because of the biological variation.
15	It's not necessarily the method is not good. The
16	question is how you, as you said, statistically put
17	this biological variation to be confident over a
18	period of a one-year trial and what you're doing is
19	really true or not.
20	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's why we have
21	placebo groups.
22	DR. THADANI: But that's why I'm saying.

You do a placebo. If you don't beat it, it's just the drug is no better, but again, the problem even with a placebo, you're assessing the patient every three months on that day when he comes to the clinic, and I assure you a lot of people don't even remember what they did four days ago, leave aside how they were feeling a month ago.

So I think those are the reasons why none of these measures are good enough.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We need to bring this to a closure, but I want to end on, I guess, hopefully three brief discussion points.

The first one, just, Jay, you made the statement that the effect on morbidity and mortality with drugs for heart failure tends to be large. The effect on symptoms tends to be small.

have the impression that these drugs have a greater symptomatic benefit than is revealed by the trials. In other words, for example, we get the impression that ACE inhibitors make people feel better more than the trials that show a change in New York Heart class

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1	or global assessment or exercise tolerance to an ACE
2	inhibitor.
3	So I hold out the hope that, in fact, the
3	-
4	drugs are making people feel better, but our
5	instruments are so insensitive to picking out effect,
6	which is why the delta between the two groups on any
7	individual measure is small.
8	DR. COHN: I think diuretics make people
9	feel much better, and the adding things to diuretics
10	have a very small additional effect.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I'm glad you
12	mentioned diuretics because that's discussion point
13	number two.
14	DR. TEMPLE: Milton, before you leave that
15	one, how can you believe that what you detect
16	clinically is more reliable than what you detect in a
17	controlled trial?
18	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, I didn't say it
19	was more reliable.
20	DR. TEMPLE: Well, why do you believe that
21	these drugs make people feel much better than turns
22	out to be the difference between the drug and the

1	placebo group in the trial?
2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I was engaging in
3	wishful thinking.
4	DR. TEMPLE: Ah.
5	(Laughter.)
6	DR. TEMPLE: Okay.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's all right.
8	DR. KONSTAM: Can I comment also, Milton,
9	because there's something I've been wanting to say?
10	I think that I'd like to see an urging
11	PARTICIPANT: Into the mic.
12	DR. KONSTAM: I thought I was. Oh.
13	I'd like to see an urging of a movement
14	away from physician determined assessments of symptoms
15	and quality of life, such as the New York Heart
16	Association class and the global assessment. It
17	actually sort of concerns me that those were the two
18	that popped out of your analysis.
19	And I think that actually your comments
20	about, you know, what we see as clinicians, I think,
21	speaks to this, which is that, you know, these
22	assessments bring in substantially the bias of the

physician incorporating all sorts of things that may have no importance to the patient at all.

And just to throw it out, I think that this was a concern in the beta blocker data set and the carvatelol data set because if you know that the patient's heart rate is lower, I think you may subconsciously or not be more likely to, say, give a higher score for the global assessment.

So I see, you know, in the document, you know, at least as I read it, there is no preference really given to which of these different scales, and I would like to urge a preference for patient determined scales as opposed to physician determined scales.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Marv, I'm glad you picked up on the fact that there was no preference because, in fact, great pains were taken to make sure that the positives and negatives, the limitations of each of these, were simply described without a hierarchy being created because one felt that it would be hard to do that in any kind of evidence based manner.

1 And remember the global assessment 2 particular complex because it can be done by the 3 patient or by the physician, but that even if the patient does it, it's still translated through an 4 5 observer. There is a patient global assessment. 6 7 DR. KONSTAM: That's not always -- well, I'm not sure what you mean by that. I mean if, for 8 example, you give a quality of life questionnaire --9 10 I'm not trying to support any particular quality of 11 life questionnaire, but there you're asking the patient to fill it out or you're transcribing the 12 13 patient's responses. 14 I think that's different from asking the physician to check off, you know, where do you think 15 the patient sits in terms of your global assessment 16 and New York Heart Association class. 17 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, and Barry did, by 18 the way, have the global assessment on both the 19 20 investigator and the patient end --Milton, this might 21 DR. THADANI: be

The patient comes to you for a symptom.

We

relevant.

1 should just stick to the patient improvement. 2 A patient could come to me. He said, "I'm 3 feeling lousy." I listen to his chest. His chest is 4 clear. He looks fine to me. 5 I say, "Oh, you're doing great," and then your assessment is completely ruined. So I think 6 7 there's a lot of biases in that. We should rather than making composite, we 8 9 You do a trial because should keep it very simple. 10 patient is short of breath. He's got fatigue or he 11 can't do X amount of things. Keep those as one, two, 12 three. Give it a score, whatever you want, and that's your primary -- if you want to make it a primary 13 14 endpoint, make that. And if you can't beat the placebo, so be 15 it. I mean, that's life. The patient has come to see 16 you for those specific things. 17 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The purpose of this 18 guideline is not to tell people what their primary 19 measure of efficacy should be. The purpose of this 20 21 document is to describe what efficacy measures have been used and have been used with varying degrees of 22

success, and in the absence of a universal view as to 1 which should be preferred, and I haven't heard a 2 3 universal view as to which would be preferred, the 4 document speaks for itself, and the --5 DR. THADANI: Maybe they're wrong. 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And the sponsor --7 and the sponsor can put forward anyone that they wish 8 to evaluate. They're going to evaluate others as 9 well, and we're all going to be able to look at the consistency of data just as Ileana emphasized earlier. 10 DR. KONSTAM: Well, Milt, maybe we should 11 12 have a little bit of discussion about this point 13 because I personally would like to see a hierarchy. 14 I'm arguing that I think that physician determined assessments of symptomatology are suspect relative to 15 16 patient driven measures, and maybe we should have a little bit of discussion about whether we'd want to 17 incorporate some kind of hierarchy into that. 18 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Is exercise tolerance 19 a patient or investigator determined assessment? 20 I mean, it's an objective 21 DR. KONSTAM: It's not --22 measure.

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: It's neither -- to tell you the truth, it's neither patient -- it's 2 3 neither entirely patient or investigator. 4 DR. KONSTAM: Yeah, I should have been 5 more clear. I guess I'm referring to measures of --6 I think exercise test I see as a separate measure that 7 has an objective quality to it. I'm referring more to measures of -- other 8 9 types of symptoms, such as the global assessment 10 scores or judgment of the New York Heart Association class, which are much less objective, which are really 11 very subjective on the part of the physician. 12 13 are the ones that I'm concerned about. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Marv, you know, if I 14 -- and I'd love to get a sense from the group -- but 15 in all honesty, without having have everyone sort of 16 17 take a look at what the data are, I'm not certain that the document can actually express a preference at the 18 19 present time. 20 Let me just say I think that everyone in the audience has heard your sense that you think that 21 22 the patient determined measures would give you a higher degree of confidence, but if someone wanted to use an investigator determined measure as the primary and still measure the patient and they were consistent, you would still feel very comfortable.

DR. KONSTAM: No, I'm saying that I might not feel comfortable at all; that if that were the only measure that was an indication of a symptom effect, I would be, in fact, very uncomfortable that the physician is simply incorporating something into the assessment that may not be important at all.

And so I guess, you know, I --

I think maybe the best way of addressing that, and I'm trying to do this hopefully in a way that solves problems without creating more, is for the document to emphasize that both patient and physician based assessments should be performed to look at the consistency of the effect across both of those.

DR. THADANI: I think physician does signs. He can't assess. The patient feels how he feels. The physician is only assessing signs. He can't change how the patient is feeling. I mean, he

1	might change his opinion, but I think that's the wrong
2	way to do it.
3	I think physicians to stick to whether the
4	lungs are clear, you know, how much the patient weighs
5	when he comes to the clinic, but I don't think he
6	should be assigning in my judgment you look great so
7	you're feeling better.
8	I think the patient assessment we
9	should stay away from this assessment by the physician
LO	of the patient.
11	DR. MASSIE: The physician's assessment is
12	not meant to be the physician's assessment of how the
13	patient feels. It's his assessment with his best
14	knowledge of all the measurements of how the patient
15	is.
16	DR. THADANI: But to give you a lot of
17	biases
18	DR. MASSIE: Well, I agree. You have
19	biases.
20	DR. THADANI: But I think there are too
21	many biases.
22	DR. MASSIE: But I can tell you patients

1	get biases, too, and they may have to deal with the
2	meal that was served. I don't think you can look at
3	one only. That's why I was trying to get a handle
4	on
5	DR. THADANI: Why not? Why not? I mean
6	a patient comes to you for one symptom. Why can't you
7	look at that?
8	DR. MASSIE: Because he can't remember
9	what it was like two weeks ago.
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, no, this is going
11	nowhere.
12	(Laughter.)
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Unless someone tells
14	unless I hear a consensus in this committee for a
15	stated preference for investigator determined
16	measures, then the document has no choice but to
17	remain neutral and not speak to this issue, and I have
18	heard both Marv and Udho say that they would like the
19	document to specifically state a preference for a
20	patient derived measure.
21	Does anyone agree?
22	(Show of hands.)

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 1 Okay. There are 2 three amongst -- how many would feel comfortable having the document stay neutral? 3 4 (Show of hands.) 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. I think we'll 6 just keep it neutral, and anyone who listens to this discussion can reach their own conclusions. 7 8 Dan. 9 DR. RODEN: I have a couple of points that 10 I wanted to make that are probably redundant, but I 11 felt like I had to say something. 12 (Laughter.) 13 RODEN: Firstly, the idea of 14 composite score, well, to be serious for a second, the idea of a composite score has some appeal because of 15 16 this issue of spending alpha if you looked two or 17 three times, but it seems to me that until the heart failure community comes to grips with the fact that 18 19 they don't understand the pathophysiology of the 20 disease they are studying completely, then the scores have to reflect that uncertainty. 21

And so it may be that when you combined

three or four different scores, you might be combining two or three of them that are measuring, in fact, the same thing and one that's not. So you end up with a composite score which, while appearing to be clinically useful, may actually not be as useful as you think.

And that sort of leads me back to two other comments. One is that everything we know about the scores and how they turn out is based on past history, and when new therapeutic compounds come along, it may be that they will perform well with different scores that haven't yet been developed. I think that's written into the document though.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.

DR. RODEN: And then, I guess, the last comment I have to make is to sort of echo but in a different way what Bob Temple said, and that is this issue of day-to-day variability in the disease and its response to therapy.

You know, I think that reflects both the fact that we're treating this thing called heart failure, which I think is many diseases, and if you

1 could figure out how to subset them, and when somebody 2 like Jay or Milton or someone figures out how to 3 subset them, then it may be that you'll be able to develop very, very directed therapies that take all of 4 5 that variability away. 6 So it's another plea for rather than 7 lumping all of this clinical entity together in one 8 big pot, but to continue to have an open mind to 9 underlying mechanisms.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob and then Lloyd.

DR. TEMPLE: I guess I just want to remind everybody that even what we're talking about now represents a radical departure from previous history.

Up until now, the usual primary endpoint in these trials was exercise testing, and the reasons for that were it was thought to be at least somewhat less susceptible to influence of unblinding and things like that, and I'm not sure it's necessarily time to abandon that view.

It's not that there weren't sometimes exceptions to that in certainly outcomes. Outcome effects were always considered an additional and

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2	But all of the drugs that were approved,
3	basically just ACE inhibitors, were approved primarily
4	based on their exercise test finding. Now, it's true
5	not every study showed it, but many did, and the ones
6	that didn't were sort of leaning, and that was not
7	considered a tragedy.
8	And so I want to remind everybody that
9	it's not quite clear to me why we're abandoning the
10	thought that that's not a particularly good endpoint
11	since it sort of is measuring an important thing.
12	DR. LIPICKY: But what's being talked
13	about is not abandoning that.
14	DR. TEMPLE: I'm sorry. I didn't hear
15	you.
16	DR. LIPICKY: What is being talked about
17	is not abandoning that.
18	DR. TEMPLE: Well, it's reducing its
19	primacy a little bit.
20	DR. LIPICKY: Well, no.
21	DR. TEMPLE: No?
22	DR. LIPICKY: Anyone can still choose to

wonderful endpoint if you could get them.

1	make ETT their primary endpoint. No one said they
2	couldn't.
3	DR. TEMPLE: But the urging
4	DR. LIPICKY: What has been discussed is
5	what if somebody chose the doctor's global evaluation
6	as their primary endpoint.
7	DR. TEMPLE: What I'm saying is
8	DR. LIPICKY: Or is there some other way
9	of making symptoms more analyzable.
10	DR. TEMPLE: There is more than one way to
11	express that view. One is to say ordinarily you
12	should plan on studying exercise testing, but if you
13	want to make the case for some other endpoints, do it,
14	or you can say it's a free for all. Do whatever you
15	want.
16	I'm just pointing out that this is a
17	change and just reminding people of that.
18	The other thing that Barry dropped in
19	DR. LIPICKY: But it isn't a change
20	because that's what people were always told, Bob.
21	Whenever people came in for a heart failure trial
22	DR. TEMPLE: Why did they always pick

exercise?

DR. LIPICKY: Whenever people came in to talk about a heart failure trial, they were told, I think, in so many words, nobody knows what to measure. You need to choose a primary endpoint because the statisticians don't know how to handle things when you have more than one.

(Laughter.)

DR. LIPICKY: And --

PARTICIPANT: We know how to handle them, but you aren't going to like it.

DR. LIPICKY: And ETT -- and ETT is not a bad thing because it's the primary complaint, and obviously you need to evaluate it. It would be crazy to not.

So you can choose that, but if you want to choose something else you can.

DR. TEMPLE: Right, but if you go back and look at previous guidance that we've written in draft form on heart failure, it emphasizes exercise tolerance more than these other things. I'm just pointing out that this represents a change.

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1	And the other thing I want to mention is
2	what Barry dropped in without any subsequent
3	discussion, the idea that symptomatic improvement
4	needs to be shown in studies of six to 12 months. The
5	number of studies that have ever done that is, to my
6	best knowledge, zero, except when the exercise or
7	other symptomatic improvements were part of an outcome
8	study.
9	So that's something that needs some
10	discussion. That's a very challenging symptom study.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me
12	DR. TEMPLE: And one needs to ask if it
13	really can be done.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, Bob, let me
15	clarify two things because I think Barry was
16	summarizing the document, and the document actually
17	says things in a certain specific way. So let me see
18	if I can do this.
19	First of all, with respect to the history
20	of exercise tolerance and without getting into an
21	extensive review of all of the public and non-public
22	discussions that may have ever taken place on this

1 topic, I think it would be fair to say that the 2 previous quideline dated 1987 for heart failure, which is the only prior written document on this, had a 3 4 heavy emphasis on exercise tolerance. 5 DR. TEMPLE: That's right. 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Which does not exist in this document. 7 8 DR. TEMPLE: That's what I was remarking 9 on. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Period. It does not 10 exist in this document, and that non-hierarchical 11 12 approach to exercise tolerance is intention, and it is 13 a reflection of how people feel about how to evaluate drugs for heart failure and their 14 general 15 disappointment with the utility of 16 disappointment with exercise tolerance as being any 17 better than any other measure of efficacy. 18 But Ray is right. There is nothing in this document that says you shouldn't measure exercise 19 20 tolerance or you couldn't put it as a primary endpoint, and you certainly could. So this document 21

is flat, non-hierarchical on which of these measures

,	and northang all of these measures much in a
1	and perhaps all of these measures combined or assessed
2	collectively could be taken.
3	All this document says is there really are
4	more than one ways to do it. They're all imperfect.
5	All you have to do is pick one or more, and whatever
6	you do, say it up front so that an appropriate
7	analytical plan can be devised.
8	And I guess and I don't want to really
9	get into this but this document does not say that
10	all of these measures need to be made. So, for
11	example, I imagine that if a sponsor came in with some
12	symptom assessment, and let's not specify what that
13	is, analyzed in an appropriate prespecified fashion,
14	which was considered by this committee to be
15	persuasive, and never measured the effect of the drug
16	on exercise ever, that would be okay.
17	Right, Ray?
18	DR. LIPICKY: Reluctantly, yeah.
19	(Laughter.)
20	DR. TEMPLE: Well, I'm not sure I agree
21	with that.
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Really?

DR. THADANI: Milton, you are knocking exercise because the mortality went in the wrong direction because until --

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No, no, no. I quess I'm -- I just want to make sure that I understand. Since guidelines in general have offered people a sense of what works and what doesn't work, I quess, Bob, I would ask you: if someone believed that they could show a treatment effect based on New York Heart class, global assessment, quality of life, whatever symptom evaluation they want, and they just said, "Listen. We really have very little faith in exercise tolerance. We don't want to do it. We'll give you three, four trials which use this symptom assessment. The draws are internally consistent and persuasive," why would anyone ever have to measure exercise tolerance?

DR. TEMPLE: Well, I'm not prepared to argue that that's impossible, but if you remember our carvatelol discussions, there was great skepticism about the globals because of concern that they were more unblindable and influenceable than other things,

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and I don't think that concern should -- that concern hasn't gone away from my point of view.

A very well documented symptom focused quality of life scale might be very good. I might be more comfortable with that, but I don't think it's a grab bag in which everything is equal.

The other thing, I just wanted to follow up on what Dan was suggesting before. When you take all of these symptoms and try to make a composite out of them, what you're actually doing is, I think, taking a sort of integrated look at things that are themselves variables. So you reduce the variability.

But when we think of a composite score like we take death plus MI plus stroke, you're really adding up separate things. That is not what this would be.

This would be an attempt to say these individual scales are all sort of crummy. I'm going to look at them all together. By taking all five and averaging them, it's sort of integrating and dividing or something like that, which may not be a bad idea, but I guess I think we still need some more work on

1 which of these scales are more susceptible 2 influence and other questions. 3 I'm not sure there is no hierarchy yet. 4 I don't know. DR. LIPICKY: Just a minute to defend ETT. 5 6 I mean, you know, the best way I can think of of 7 making people not have symptoms is to put them to bed 8 and keep them asleep. Now, that is not a treatment 9 for heart failure. 10 DR. RODEN: It actually is. DR. LIPICKY: 11 Well --12 (Laughter.) 13 DR. LIPICKY: Fine, I understand. 14 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: It used to be. 15 DR. LIPICKY: I understand, but if it is drug induced, that drug isn't to treat heart failure. 16 17 So the ETT, in fact, assures that the heart is tested during exercise and that the drug which is being used 18 19 to treat the heart failure is not decreasing the 20 activity level, which would clearly make people feel better without actually affecting any aspect of the 21 pathophysiology or the heart. 22

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So I think there is room for ETT. It is desirable, but if you pin me and say, you know, "Gee, somebody comes in and proves that everybody feels terrific. You have enough assurance that this didn't put them to sleep," you know, I think ETT is symptom relief, and it is nothing more than symptom relief, and you'd have to consider that.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I don't think we're going to -- I mean, clearly all of these decisions will be very data dependent based on what the NDA is, but your conclusion, I think, Bob, is an accurate one, which is the previous preference for exercise is gone in this guideline, and I get the sense that people are comfortable with that.

That is not to abandon exercise, but it's to say that we don't feel that the previous preference was justified.

DR. TEMPLE: Just to follow up on what Ray said though, there are components of how you feel that relate to whether you can do more, and there are other components that might be differently described. It does seem to me that it's relevant to ask people or

1	measure it by exercise whether you can, in fact, do
2	more.
3	Now, some of these measures like globals
4	may have that as a component and some might not, and
5	if they didn't, I think that's a problem.
6	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: As you know, New York
7	Heart class is inherently that kind of question.
8	DR. TEMPLE: That's not bad, right, and
9	the gradations are pretty
10	DR. LIPICKY: But it is just one word
11	more. You know, it is important to measure. I mean,
12	beta blockers are beta blockers with alpha adrenergic
13	properties also, clearly decrease exercise tolerance,
14	but they make people feel better, and that's okay. It
15	doesn't have to increase exercise tolerance, but I
16	think it should be evaluated.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Ileana, yes, please.
18	DR. PINA: I mean, I have to sit here and
19	defend ETT as well. You know, exactly what Dan said,
20	some of the measures that we've used in the past may
21	not be applicable to today, and just like we don't
22	have an ideal quality of life measurement, we don't

necessarily have an idea exercise test, and all of the 1 2 early exercise tests were based back on the old 3 anginal trials where you walked five minutes. 4 now did you walk six, six and a half? 5 That maybe didn't make any sense, and this is where the six minute walk came from and the nine 6 7 minute walk. So I would use exercise tolerance as 8 9 another part of this feeling better, able to do more 10 score, but I also don't want people to leave here 11 thinking that it's not important. I think it is 12 important. 13 DR. THADANI: But it's an objective score, 14 I think the way this document is written, exercise is being knocked, you know, completely 15 16 negative. 17 know, if you read the second 18 paragraph, it says it is really no good. I think exercise is an objective way of measuring it. I know 19 20 there are patients walk better. They walk longer than 21 placebo. Great. I think they should be able to do

more.

1	So I don't think we should completely
2	the way it is written probably has to be changed, that
3	paragraph. That's a useful measure, and it should be
4	in addition to your symptom score.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho, I disagree with
6	what you've said. The limitations of every single one
7	of these assessments is emphasized.
8	DR. LIPICKY: Right.
9	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Exercise is not
10	the global assessment is described in terms of its
11	limitations. Quality of life is described in terms of
12	its limitations, and everyone should know what the
13	limitations are.
14	And I don't think that it would be useful
15	to have this discussion go any further because I think
16	the document speaks for itself.
17	Let me just emphasize the issue of
18	diuretics. There's something that needs to be
19	clarified. Does this document apply to diuretics,
20	Ray?
21	DR. LIPICKY: I think it does.
22	(Laughter.)

1	DR. LIPICKY: Well, you asked me to not be
2	negative.
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay.
4	DR. TEMPLE: Milton.
5	DR. LIPICKY: Diuretics are for the
6	treatment of heart failure, right?
7	DR. TEMPLE: There is some ambiguity here.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes, I know.
9	DR. TEMPLE: The most recent diuretics
10	that have come through have been labeled for fluid
11	accumulation associated with boom, boom, boom. So
12	what we looked at is weight loss
13	DR. LIPICKY: So this is the most radical
14	change.
15	DR. LIPICKY: in people with heart
16	failure. They weren't really claiming symptomatic
17	improvement.
18	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Speaking now from the
19	perspective of how many applications for diuretics
20	this committee has seen
21	DR. LIPICKY: One.
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: which is one

1	DR. LIPICKY: But let me just amplify my
2	statement. I see no reason that this should not be
3	applicable to diuretics. Okay?
4	Now, if someone developed a diuretic and
5	brought a new drug application to the agency and said,
6	"All I know is it makes people pee," I think we would
7	need to consider that also, but there is no reason
8	that any of the things that are said in this document
9	or any of the measurements that are suggested that can
LO	be made in this document are not equally applicable to
11	diuretics as they are to something that affects the
12	heart or the vessels.
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Maybe I should we
14	need some clarification on this because up to now
15	diuretics have been based on their ability to increase
16	urine or they have been approved based on their
17	ability to increase urine output and decrease weight
18	or decrease edema.
19	DR. LIPICKY: Correct.
20	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: All of which are
21	either physiologic endpoints or physical signs.
22	DR. LIPICKY: Correct.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And there has been no
2	database that I know of as part of an NDA that has
3	been directed towards symptoms
4	DR. LIPICKY: Correct.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: or outcomes.
6	DR. LIPICKY: But if someone brought a
7	diuretic in that showed that people felt better or
8	could exercise longer or had a longer duration of life
9	or had fewer hospitalizations, we would not approve it
10	because it doesn't fit the guideline?
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No. No, it would fit
12	the guideline then.
13	DR. LIPICKY: Yes. So I'm saying this is
14	applicable to diuretics.
15	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That would mean those
16	were the first diuretic ever approved for the
17	treatment of heart failure.
18	DR. LIPICKY: I understand that. You
19	asked me the question is this applicable to diuretics.
20	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, okay.
21	DR. LIPICKY: The answer is yes.
	DR. BITTERT. THE diswel 15 yes.

1	time.
2	DR. THADANI: How would you do that?
3	Because it's background therapy?
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Is there another way
5	other than this guideline by which diuretics can be
6	approved?
7	DR. LIPICKY: Yes.
8	(Laughter.)
9	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Do you want to
10	clarify that any further?
11	DR. LIPICKY: Yes. They just have to show
12	that they are a diuretic, and that salt and water
13	comes out of the body and body weight goes down and
14	that it is able to be kept stably down, and that
15	people don't dry up and become a prune.
16	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob? I have a
17	feeling you have something to say about this.
18	DR. CALIFF: Well, I mean, once you have
19	a diuretic which has been shown to save lives in
20	patients with heart failure, is it a safety problem or
21	an efficacy problem if another diuretic just makes

people pee in a situation that made the things

1	differently to surrogate endpoints like electrolytes
2	or neurohormonal status?
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: What state are we in
4	now?
5	DR. LIPICKY: That's a really good
6	question.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Do you think there's
8	been a diuretic that's been shown to do those things?
9	DR. LIPICKY: No, no, no. What he's
10	saying is
11	DR. CALIFF: Well, yes.
12	DR. LIPICKY: if a diuretic that worked
13	up according to these guidelines and showed that it
14	saved lives in congestive heart failure and another
15	diuretic after that came along and showed that you
16	made more urine and that's all they showed, would the
17	rules change?
18	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think the situation
19	would be more interesting if someone developed a
20	diuretic which made people pee and didn't make people
21	feel better or increased mortality.
22	DR. CALIFF: But if all you've got to do

_	is show that you made people pee, that takes ten
2	patients.
3	DR. MASSIE: Yeah, but we're not going to
4	get a placebo control trial long term of a diuretic.
5	DR. CALIFF: We have one.
6	DR. MASSIE: Even though no one has shown
7	that.
8	DR. CALIFF: I thought we had one
9	DR. LIPICKY: Well, look. I mean
10	DR. CALIFF: that's just been stopped
11	for benefit.
12	DR. MASSIE: Well, that's not a pure
13	diuretic.
14	DR. CALIFF: Oh, it's not a pure diuretic.
15	DR. MASSIE: Or else it would have been a
16	long term trial.
17	DR. CALIFF: What diuretic is a pure
18	diuretic? Don't pills that we give people affect
19	everything downstream from the blood that it's in?
20	DR. LIPICKY: Well, I don't know if you
21	want to really take this away from the current
22	document. You're raising real problems that would

take long times to talk about.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think what we hear you say, Ray, is, just to try to keep this focused, that the concept of a diuretic could be approved based on changes in physiology or physical findings remains in place.

DR. LIPICKY: No, no. It isn't physiology or physical findings. I mean to show people who are edematous lose 15 pounds is as good as people being able to run longer around a treadmill, right? I mean that's a real thing. It isn't physiology or pathophysiology. It is the management of edema, and that's as good a measure of whether it does that as it is to say symptoms are better if you can run 30 seconds longer on a Bruce.

So I don't think it's appropriate to characterize it as a physiological thing or a surrogate thing. It is the management of edema, and there's no better way to know whether you're managing it than if body weight doesn't change.

It doesn't say at the present time it has not been necessary in the past to document long term

1 symptom benefit or morbidity or mortality, and that is 2 an applicable statement to the last diuretic that was approved, which I believe was 12 years ago. 3 4 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Torsemide was four 5 years ago. 6 DR. LIPICKY: Four years ago? Okay. Ιt got started six, okay, quite some time ago, about the 7 time or just a little after the time that the major 8 treatment for heart failure was approved on the basis 9 10 of a single exercise tolerance trial. 11 DR. THADANI: Ray, surely --12 DR. LIPICKY: Okay? So you don't want to 13 start making too much of a contrast here, 14 certainly this guideline would be applicable to a 15 diuretic. One could develop a diuretic for the 16 treatment of heart failure following the instructions 17 for use here. There is another way in which they can do it. 18 DR. THADANI: One of the difficulties I'm 19 having is if you look at all of the symptomatic heart 20 21 failure ACE inhibitor trials, a diuretic has been 22 background therapy in all of them. So I even don't

	RHOW IT ACE WOULD WOLK WICHOUT A GIUTETIC IN
2	symptomatic heart failure
3	DR. LIPICKY: That's correct.
4	DR. THADANI: if you go by objective
5	data.
6	So you are stuck with doing diuretic
7	active control trials. You can't do placebo
8	controlled trials. You use diuretics in patients not
9	only for
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's not the issue
11	we're discussing.
12	DR. THADANI: No, no, but you can use
13	diuretics for patients who are short of breath, have
14	few pulmonary rills, don't have edema. So you don't
15	have to lose four pounds in order to approve it.
16	There are different indications.
17	DR. LIPICKY: Well, you can do that, Udho,
18	but we haven't approved a diuretic
19	DR. THADANI: I realize that, but
20	diuretics are part of the background therapy. How do
21	you get around that for approval process?
22	You are suggesting there should be active

1	control trials against a fixed regimen.
2	DR. LIPICKY: No, I haven't suggested
3	anything. This guideline says you can do placebo
4	controlled trials, you know.
5	DR. TEMPLE: Udho is getting to the
6	question of how you'd actually bring it off if you
7	wanted to since you can't leave the diuretic out
8	easily.
9	DR. LIPICKY: No, I understand.
10	DR. TEMPLE: And an active controlled
11	trial would be uninformative.
12	DR. LIPICKY: That is merely a topic, you
13	know, for another day.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Look. We have
15	one remaining issue on symptoms which Bob brought up
16	and Barry addressed. The time frame of the clinical
17	status trials is stated in the document to be six to
18	12 months as opposed to what used to be three months.
19	That, if it stands, would represent a
20	conceptual change, and we should discuss that briefly.
21	DR. TEMPLE: Right. It's worth
22	remembering that all of the approved products were

1 based on data not more than three months, except 2 insofar as symptomatic data were collected as part of an outcome study. Then you got longer data, but they 3 4 were all three month data. 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Carvatelol was six 6 months. 7 DR. TEMPLE: Well, Carvatelol was a little exception. The exercise tolerance didn't work out 8 9 there. Some of those data are longer. 10 But I think it's not so DR. MASSIE: 11 contradictory. I mean among the more radical changes 12 are the degree of information we want to know about 13 morbidity and mortality either as efficacy or as 14 safety, but one way or another we do need to know 15 that. 16 And I think it's impossible to get that 17 data in three month trials. We now realize that that 18 type of information evolves over time, and so I think 19 it's not -- I mean, I don't think you'd want to have 20 two pivotal trials looking at symptoms in three 21 morths, and then how are you going to get your 4,000

patients of exposure over long term?

22

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So I think it

1	makes sense to
2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We shouldn't
3	DR. TEMPLE: Those are different studies.
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We shouldn't confuse
5	efficacy and safety.
6	DR. MASSIE: Right. Well, but what I'm
7	saying is that it doesn't make sense not to collect
8	longer term data if what you want to know at the end
9	of the package is something about longer term
10	experience.
11	DR. KONSTAM: No, but, Barry, if exercise
12	time happens to be the indicator that supports the
13	symptom improvement, you're not going to necessary
14	and that were acceptable at three months you could
15	acquire the survival data over much longer without
16	getting more exercise tests after six months.
17	DR. MASSIE: Well, you could, and I think
18	the other reason why Milton probably expanded this to
19	six months is we've watched beneficial effects
20	dissipate between three and six months, and
21	flosequinine is probably one for sure, although we

didn't quite measure it at six months again.

1	And the question is: why three months?
2	Why not six months?
3	I mean, it was three months because I
4	mean, the way this all works is one study came out
5	well, got a good response from the FDA, worked well
6	for patients, and for the next ten years people copied
7	that protocol.
8	And then you get the beta blocker
9	protocols where the same things that worked well for
LO	the ACE inhibitor ten years ago don't work well, and
L1	all of a sudden we have a new paradigm.
L2	Maybe there's nothing magic about either
13	paradigms, but we have learned that exercise tolerance
14	effects tend to disappear over time with some drugs.
15	PARTICIPANT: Well, they are two different
16	issues. That's the problem.
17	DR. TEMPLE: Well, no, but that's
18	misleading. That was a drug that was progressively
19	killing people. Maybe that's why the exercise
20	tolerance went down.
21	I mean that's not quite the same thing,
22	and I just want to

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1	DR. MASSIE: It's not quite the same
2	thing, but the question is: do you care if exercise
3	improves in three months and it isn't improved in six
4	months?
5	DR. KONSTAM: Well, whatever time frame is
6	arbitrary. You could say the same thing about one
7	years, Barry.
8	DR. TEMPLE: Another way of describing
9	what you're interested in is to make sure it improves
10	exercise over a reasonable period of time and then
11	gain assurance from larger, longer studies on outcome,
12	which is historically how it's been done.
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Maybe the document
14	should say that periods of time should be three to 12
15	because the issue about assessing what the mortality
16	is going to be assessed now regardless. Whether it's
17	neutral, positive, negative, it doesn't matter. It's
18	going to be assessed long term in a controlled
19	fashion.
20	So do you feel comfortable with three to
21	12?
22	PARTICIPANTS: Yes.

1	DR. TEMPLE: Yeah, well, given that choice
2	most people will go with three, you know.
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Well, not
4	necessarily. Some drugs may not have much of an
5	effect in three. The effect may get greater over
6	time.
7	DR. TEMPLE: Sure. That's always
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah.
9	DR. TEMPLE: Can I ask one other question
10	about the survival question? Does that apply equally
11	to all classes of drugs?
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Different topic.
13	DR. TEMPLE: Okay.
14	DR. FISHER: Milt, can I
15	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.
16	DR. FISHER: as a question? When I was
17	looking at the endpoints that you have, there was only
18	one thing I expected to see that I didn't, and that
19	was in the worsening heart failure. What about a
20	patient that slowly declines and ends up getting
21	tremendous increases in the concurrent meds., but

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who's not hospitalized? Is there any level at which

1 that would be considered worsening heart failure? 2 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The difficulty, and, 3 by the way, that is the next topic, so let's hold that 4 for a second, and we're going to ask Jay to review the Section 5.2, which is evaluation of long term outcome. 5 6 And, Jay, although this wasn't prespecified, what I'd like you to do is review this 7 not only from an efficacy point of view, but from a 8 safety point of view. 9 I'm sure you just -- do efficacy first, and then move on to, after we're done 10 with that discussion -- because we are not going to 11 formally discuss the safety part of this document, but 12 13 the long term effects of drug are a safety issue even 14 if one is only looking for a symptomatic indication in 15 the intermediate term. So we'll split the discussion into two 16 The first part, just focus on efficacy, and 17 18 then we'll pause and then go on to long term outcomes 19 as a safety issue. 20 DR. COHN: Well, I'm not sure you can separate them that easily because efficacy and safety 21

are obviously related.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's fine.

DR. COHN: Let me put in perspective what I'm going to say because, first of all, we all have to sit here agreeing that heart failure is a biological process, and we've spent a good deal of time talking about symptoms and quality of life and exercise, which bear a very poor relationship to the severity of the biological process, first of all. We all recognize that.

You can have an advanced biological process with very few symptoms. You can have a very modestly advanced biological process with a lot of symptoms.

And when we talk about the first few months after therapy has been initiated and we're looking for symptoms relief or some measure of efficacy, we're really looking for evidence that our drug has altered the relationship between the biological process and the symptoms because in a very short period of time, in a few months, the biological process may not progress very much, and you're now trying to change the relationship between the

biological process and the symptom complex.

If you look later on, nine and 12 months out, when there is clear evidence that the biological process has progressed -- and I'm going to show you some slides if anybody -- is there somebody up there to show slides? -- then you may be looking at the favorable effect on the biological process which would lead to symptom relief.

so a three month symptom benefit and a 12 month symptom benefit may be mechanistically entirely different, and I don't think we should mix them together.

DR. LIPICKY: There is someone up there now.

DR. COHN: Okay. So my theme is really going to be that we're dealing with a lot of disparate endpoints, and it is not, I don't believe, appropriate to say, "This drug works. Therefore, let's find out how everything fell together," because drugs don't necessarily work on all aspects of this disease, both short term and long term.

Now, the biological process is still an

enigma, and we know that, and I'm going to suggest in the second paragraph of 5.2 that the statement, the last sentence of that second paragraph has to be watered down, and instead of saying that -- the term "surrogate" was used -- that surrogate endpoints have not yet been shown to reliably predict the effect of drug because they haven't, but we should not close the door to this in the future, and that, therefore, they cannot currently be used in lieu of direct measures of clinical benefit.

I think that's only fair because I'm hoping that in the work-up of drugs in the future that we're going to see a lot of these physiologic markers measured so eventually we will be able to link them to clinical outcomes and thus simplify and shorten the process of demonstration of drug efficacy.

The first slide, if somebody is up there to show a slide, I mean, this is just my initial candidates for the biological process, and at the moment there are probably three general candidates that we use to assess the severity of the disease.

One is the structure of the left

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ventricle, which relates to its function, of course, and that's ejection fraction of N diastolic and N systolic volume or mass or perhaps even histology.

The level of neurohormonal activation, and that means norepinephrine and perhaps naturetic peptide levels, endothelan, many others that are candidates for that, maybe gene expression.

And something in the electrical area which we know plays a role in sudden death, VTAC, repolarization dispersion, depolarization dispersion, some aspects of VP, and we've got experts on the panel.

Next slide.

Now, this is what I mean about the biological process. This process progresses like this, and you enter a study somewhere along the way of that biological process, and if it progresses and leads to a heart failure death, you die, but along the way you may die prematurely from an electrical or some other mechanism, and death, of course, is not a very simple endpoint for the biological process, and it's a surrogate marker for the disease, but the disease is

the biological process if we could monitor it.

And when you at entry in a very short period of time show that a patient has gotten better, you're modifying the symptoms in relationship to the biological process, but you're not intervening necessarily on the slope.

If you have a drug which changes the biological process, you may favorably affect the slope or unfavorably accelerate the slope and cause death prematurely.

So it isn't a very simple thing to look at one endpoint, such as death, or symptoms and assume that they are going to go in the same direction. You may have a drug which favorably affects the biological process, but increases the risk of sudden death, and mortality may be a very poor marker for what that drug has done.

You may reduce heart failure deaths and increase sudden deaths, and then if you put a defibrillator in all of those patients, you'd now get the benefit of the improved slope of progression without the sudden death, and that's, of course, a

future possibility.

So we have to open our eyes to all of these co-therapies that may influence the disease.

Now, let me just give you an example of one drug in which the combined endpoint would get you into terrible trouble. Can I have the next slide, please?

Here is vesnarinone. Now, the vesnarinone trial is a beautiful dose titration trial in which placebo in red, vesnarinone in 30 milligram dose and vesnarinone 60 milligram dose were tested, and there is a dose dependent increase in mortality or reduction of survival, and the P value for the vesnarinone 60 versus placebo is highly significant.

Now, this essentially scuttles this drug as a useful agent to treat heart failure, and at the end of the trial about five percent more patients randomized to vesnarinone 60 than to placebo died. So over five years or, let's see, over two years average -- this is what? A couple of years -- over those couple of years five more percent of the people died.

Now, the next slide.

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Now, when we looked at the mean changes in

Now, if we tease them out -- next slide --

Now you look at what happened at eight

quality of life at the first 16 weeks, there was a

waned by 26 weeks, but for the first 16 weeks, this

group significantly got better compared to the placebo

and just look at those whose quality of life improved

by a dramatic amount, and we arbitrarily chose an

increase of 15 or improvement in 15 units in the

Minnesota Living with Heart Failure questionnaire

because that is a number in which there is absolutely

no overlap in reproducibility from test to test, and

weeks in all the patients on placebo versus all the

patients on vesnarinone, and there's about five

percent of these people; more of them got better than

the placebo group. So it's about the same number who

would increase their mortality if they were followed

over all the period of time. We have no idea if this

is the same group of patients. It may be two entirely

it is two standard deviations beyond any noise.

highly significant benefit of vesnarinone 60.

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separate populations that we could have identified.

But if we look just at the Class 4 patients who all say that they want improved quality of life and they don't care about mortality -- at least that's been the previous experience with this patient population -- look at this. There's an 18 percent difference. That is, on placebo 20 percent of the Class 4 patients got better at eight weeks. whereas 39 percent of the vesnarinone patients got better at eight weeks, suggesting that for some reason this drug produced a dramatic effect in quality of That is, it had some benefit on symptoms with the same biological process, but it did not favorably affect the biological process. In fact, the mortality increase was all sudden death. So it didn't change probably the biological process, but it increased the risk of sudden death.

Now, the final point, I was going to make this before. When we looked at all cause mortality plus hospitalization, which is put forward in the guidelines as a composite endpoint that's more powerful than mortality alone, the adverse effect of

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1 vesnarinone disappeared. 2 Why? Because the drug did not adversely affect the slope of the biological process. It caused 3 4 sudden death, and therefore, there was no increase in 5 hospitalizations. 6 So when you add hospitalizations 7 mortality, the difference between placebo and 8 vesnarinone disappeared. 9 So you have to be very careful when you 10 design a trial to choose the endpoint that you think you will win on, and if you had chosen a combined 11 12 endpoint in this trial, you would have had a neutral 13 effect, whereas, in fact, the drug is having an 14 adverse effect on mortality. 15 So mortality, morbidity, sudden death, 16 quality of life, all may vary disparately, and it's 17 not easy then to assign a single score, a single global marker for efficacy in heart failure. 18 very difficult to say, "I have a treatment for heart 19 20 failure that works." 21 You tell me on what it is working.

working on the biological process in slowing it?

1 it working on the electrical abnormality and reducing 2 sudden death events? Is it improving quality of life? 3 You tell me what it is doing, and very few drugs do 4 all of these things to a comparable degree. 5 And, therefore, the design of a trial, I 6 think, is going to have to be very much dependent on the proposed mechanism of action of the drug and the 7 proposed endpoint that you feel you are most likely to 8 9 win on. 10 And my sense is that the agency perfectly happy to accept whatever endpoint you choose 11 12 as long as it's in some way related to morbidity or 13 mortality or quality of life, and you've got to be 14 sure you guess right, and no rigid document is going 15 to tell you what to use for any given drug. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 16 Does that mean you 17 liked or didn't like the document? 18 (Laughter.) 19 DR. COHN: I'm suggesting that the 20 document, that in some aspects it has to be softened, 21 and I think the use of a combined endpoint may in some

instances work very well if you're influencing the

biological process.

If you have a beta blocker and you believe it is altering the biological process of progression, then obviously using a combined endpoint is going to be far more powerful than looking for any single one, but if you have a drug which is working on arrhythmias, you would not choose a combined endpoint because you're probably going to lose.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: As far as I can recall, and perhaps I should make sure, the document does not create a preference for a combined over mortality. It is so perfectly reasonable to analyze mortality alone or a composite.

The document does state that one probably shouldn't analyze hospitalizations alone because it doesn't include the worst event that could occur. That's more of the competing risks issue.

DR. COHN: Yeah.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And certainly your choice of which one you would like needs to be tailored to the kind of drug you're using and may also be tailored as to whether you're making this

evaluation in order to demonstrate a treatment effect or to reassure people about the safety of a drug.

DR. COHN: Yeah. There's one more point I meant to make, too, and that is in terms of analysis because if one seeks out a single answer to the efficacy of a therapy, it invites you to do what is said in the principles of analysis in 5.3.2, which is that the best way to analyze some nonmortality endpoint is to substitute the lowest possible figure for a patient who died and didn't get the nonmortality measurement made.

And that would suggest that we are looking for a global answer to the question of efficacy, and I would suggest that that is an over adjustment which, in fact, in many instances may cloud the issue.

The vesnarinone data I showed you asked the question if you survive -- now, let's say five percent more are going to die now -- but if you survive, are you going to be healthier and feel better with the drug than without the drug? Now, that means you've got to weigh. You've got a time adjustment weight that you have to put into all of this in terms

of using such a drug, and vesnarinone is a lousy example because the benefit was only 16 weeks.

But if you had a drug which produced this sustained benefit in a subset of the patients who took the drug and the cost was that a few more people died, you'd have to weigh these things carefully, and it wouldn't be fair to obliterate the quality of life improvement by substituting for everybody who died a low score because you might then eliminate the benefit on quality of life and not be able to tease out separately the effect of the drug on how people feel in the survivors.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I know we're going to talk about this, and I know, Tom, you may or may not speak to this issue, but let's hold those comments. This is an analytical analysis issue, Jay. So we're just going to hold that for a moment until we get to that section.

Lloyd?

DR. FISHER: I wanted to ask you a question about Jay's paradigm because I den't think I buy it, and there are several reasons.

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One is I think it's extremely difficult to separate the sudden death from the power failure, but I would also suggest it's quit possible that the propensity or probability of sudden death increases with your process.

So that it's not like some extra thing that goes along and if you just prevent that, you'll have the gains, whatever. I mean that could be true.

Now, I don't follow this literature, and I could readily be wrong, but that's my impression from the little I know, and I'd be interested to hear the other clinicians on the panel.

DR. COHN: Well, I didn't mean to suggest that they are separable because, as the disease progresses, the risk of sudden death increases, but there certainly are some drugs that we give and the biological process has not been changed, and shortly after administration of the drug, they get tourisad and die. That's clearly an adverse effect of the drug on the electrical process, not on the biological process.

So these two are going on together, and I

don't mean to suggest that it is easy to separate the two mechanisms of death. I just point out the complexity of having a single treatment for the disease process.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Tom.

DR. FLEMING: Jay, your terminology of death and clinical endpoints being a surrogate for the mechanisms of action that you're trying to achieve concerns me in the perspective of what it is that we're about here. I would state that what we are about is to achieve tangible clinical benefits to patients, presumably and hopefully mediated through intended biological effects on the biological process, i.e., we understand the disease process to an extent, to an extent, to suggest what are at least in part some of the causal mechanisms that lead to the clinical consequences, and we wish to intervene on the patient's behalf to achieve clinical benefit mediated through positive effects on that disease mechanism.

endroints are surrogates for this disease mechanism seems to be reversing the issue here. The issue is

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effects on these disease mechanisms or surrogates that you would hope to be able to establish in the future, as you say, for the clinical benefit.

DR. COHN: Well, if all deaths were related to the biological process and, therefore, potentially favorably affected by your therapy, you would be right, but of course, when people die of gunshot wounds, they count as deaths on the drug, and we recognize that all deaths are not related to the disease process, are not related to the therapy that you are trying to utilize.

So in many ways it is neither a sensitive nor a specific marker for the disease process.

DR. FLEMING: But the issue here is that it's not just gunshot wounds. The issue is you can identify and measure certain biological mechanisms, and those mechanisms may, in fact, be causally related to these clinical events that we're trying to affect, but as I've seen in other beautiful transparencies that you've shown, there are a myriad of different mechanisms at play here, some of which may not at all be captured by a given mechanism that you're tracking

along your axis.

In addition to that, there are a myriad of unintended, unanticipated, undocumented, unrecognized effects of intervention that you are inducing that can also affect the clinical outcome here, all of which are very real and important and not arbitrary, unrelated chance happenings like gunshot wounds.

So ultimately if the goal here is to benefit patients in a tangible way, these mechanisms here that you are talking about are surrogates; effects on those are surrogates for the clinical endpoints.

A second point, while I have the microphone here quickly --

DR. FISHER: Just one thing, Tom. The good news is we've all found a surrogate we'll accept: death. If somebody can show that as a surrogate for helping the disease process, I'm willing to accept that.

DR. FLEMING: The second point is the comment that you had made about needing to find the measure that will be most sensitive to the effect of

treatment I partially agree with. I think we do need to look for those measures that are sensitive.

But we also need to develop what I might refer to as a hierarchy of clinical endpoints: mortality, morbidity, as well as, as we've already had an hour and a half discussion on, a myriad of different measures, symptoms, and quality of life, and those have varying degrees of relevance to patients, and the magnitude and duration of effects that we achieve on those endpoints also influence the clinical importance of effects on patients.

And I would argue the goal here is to target those endpoints that are particularly relevant to patients that we would believe will be affected by the intervention.

So if, for example, mortality and some measure of symptoms are both affected, to say I'm going to choose the measure of symptoms and ignore mortality is not justifiable based on the hierarchy, mortality being more important.

Certainly we want to target measures that we anticipate will be sensitive, and I argue what we

should target as our primary endpoint is that measure on the hierarchy of clinical relevance that we expect to be -- the highest that we expect to be particularly sensitive.

So, for example, if we think that we are unlikely to positively or negatively affect mortality, I can understand and accept that that's not your primary endpoint. You may choose exercise tolerance or some measure of symptoms, but in a setting where you anticipate mortality to be sensitive or likely to be affected, then I have difficulty ignoring that and targeting a measure such as symptomatic status.

DR. COHN: Yeah, I probably trying to be controversial have made overstated. You've interpreted it as an overstatement. I would never suggest that we don't monitor morbidity and mortality.

However, we are going to be entering an era if, indeed, the current beta blocker trials and perhaps the spiranol lactone trial pan out as announced, we may find ourselves with an annual mortality rate in this disease so low that perhaps one point is to say, "Hey, why don't you get it? We don't

need anymore drugs," or the other would be to say,
"Well, you cannot do 20,000 or 30,000 patient trials
carried out over eight years to demonstrate efficacy.
We've got to find a simpler, quicker, more sensitive
guide to efficacy than waiting for people to die
because fewer and fewer apparently are going to die if
they're treated with all the therapies that are now
out there."

So my plea is that we should be looking at the potential in the future of powering a trial for the biological process and looking at these clinical endpoints to make certain that they go in the right direction, but not insisting on the same power, the same P value that we do today because we are not monitoring the biological process.

And I would be very comfortable perhaps in the future, not today, and that's why I say we're not there yet, but I would be very comfortable eventually in the future to have a marker for progression of the disease that is clearly favorably affected by intervention, and now the mortality is reduced by 20 percent, but I haven't really got enough numbers of

deaths to be powered for the P value that we traditionally want that I would say, "Hey, that's good enough now. I'm willing to look at that and accept morbidity and mortality reduction in the absence of P value as adequate once I have the biological process nailed down."

DR. FLEMING: I would certainly find it very acceptable to argue that in the setting where you have low risk of mortality and anticipated and ultimately documented effect on symptomatic status or quality of life with supportive evidence that's not significant, but supportive on mortality, that's a strong case. That's a case based on -- not driven by the mechanism issue, but driven by the fact that we have established symptomatic benefit, and we actually over and above that have evidence of positive trends on mortality as well.

The surrogate measure that you're assessing certainly gives us plausibility of efficacy, but to do an assessment that is based on a documented effect on a mechanism of action or surrogate endpoint with a trend on mortality is still weaker evidence.

1 DR. COHN: Well, I hope you'll change your 2 mind maybe as data accumulate over the ensuing years, 3 I hope. 4 DR. FLEMING: But I would only change my 5 mind to the extent that the data that accumulates is 6 of a nature that allows us to reliably conclude that 7 documented effects on these biological markers are 8 reliably telling us that we will achieve the intended 9 benefits on the clinical endpoints. 10 DR. COHN: Well, that's why I hope that the guidelines will encourage industry to collect that 11 12 kind of data that would satisfy you because that's the 13 secret. I mean, we have to collect that kind of data 14 so in the future we're not hung up on the same kind of 15 almost impossible challenge as we are today. 16 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay, obviously I 17 guess my own feeling is that's beyond the scope of the 18 guidelines, but one can take your plea to industry 19 directly now. 20 DR. COHN: Well, the guidelines could 21 encourage collection of that kind of data in these 22 trials.

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Well, let me try to 2 refocus what you --3 DR. COHN: And the agency would look at it as supportive evidence. If there was some statement 4 5 in the guidelines, then that would be very supportive. 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: There are already 7 statements in the guidelines that a whole host of 8 physiologic markers are useful in the characterization 9 of a drug, and certainly if they went in the same 10 direction as the symptom and outcome data, it would not be looked at as being noncontributory. 11 12 But I think the question -- but you made 13 the statement just a few minutes ago which I think 14 troubles me, and that is that if you had an effect on 15 a marker let's just say we're modeling because it just 16 happens to be the marker of the month that people 17 happen to like, but whether it will withstand the test 18 of time I don't know. 19 If you were markering mortality and found 20 at the end of six months where you had an effect on 21 remodeling, let's say the effect on remodeling is unequivocally present, and you recorded 20 deaths in 22

1	one group and 20 deaths in another. Would you
2	consider the mortality data to be confirmatory of the
3	remodeling effect?
4	COHN: Obviously not.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Twenty and 19?
6	DR. COHN: Well, I mean, you know, you can
7	do this with most anything.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But you see, that's
9	the problem. Bob, that's the problem with small
LO	numbers.
11	DR. COHN: You'd have to see the whole
L2	database, and you'd have to look at a lot of other
13	things besides that, but 20 deaths, of course, is not
L4	powered for much of anything.
L5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right.
16	DR. COHN: So you obviously might need
17	more, but the question is whether you need Ray's
18	.00125; is that what it is?
19	DR. LIPICKY: Yes.
20	(Laughter.)
21	DR. COHN: Or whether you'd be willing to
22	accept .06 if, indeed, everything else goes in the

1 right direction. 2 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, I'm sorry. 3 It's not as if an effect on a physiologic okay. marker with a P value of .9 -- that would not be 4 5 satisfactory. 6 DR. COHN: No, I don't think it would. 7 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I understand. 8 Lloyd. I'm sorry. Bob. 9 DR. TEMPLE: Well, that last reflects sort 10 of a general principle. Depending on how persuasive they are, other evidence of that kind will be used 11 12 along with the results of controlled trials to either 13 strengthen or undermine them. So as a general principle, we're prepared to do that. The question is 14 15 when it's persuasive, of course. 16 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Ray? 17 DR. LIPICKY: You know, in the discussion that has occurred in the last five or ten minutes, the 18 topic has changed seven times. I wanted to address 19 20 the very first thing that Jay said, which I want to 21 sort of support, and that is the nature of all of

these interventions ought to be towards altering the

natural history of the disease if one is intending the therapy that way, but it is also to, if one cannot affect the natural history of the disease, to make people feel better. Okay?

So there are two components to all of this, and one of the things that is missing in the guidelines and in discussions is how what seems to have public health benefit, such as reduction in hospitalizations or mortality, is, in fact, a measure of affecting either of those things, and how does one know that affecting death is a measure of affecting the natural history of the disease?

I'm not sure I know, and in that sense, in that sense, although it may have clinical importance, okay, I think I agree with Jay. It is a surrogate of what we should be interested in.

That doesn't mean it is a nonmeaningful clinical measure, nor that it could not satisfy the pragmatic aspects of being a primary endpoint in a trial, but it doesn't mean -- I don't think that anyone can say that one knows that if that variable is affected, one has changed the natural history of the

1	disease.
1	disease.
2	And as a biologist, I think that that's
3	what everybody's interest should be in.
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But not necessarily
5	as a clinician.
6	DR. LIPICKY: Well, if clinicians are not
7	biologists.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. I think
9	the
10	DR. COHN: They used to be.
11	DR. LIPICKY: They used to be. I mean
12	back in my day.
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think that the
14	distinction I don't want to try and over simplify
15	it but the distinction between the position that
16	Jay is describing and the position that Tom is
17	describing is a difference between an emphasis on
18	understanding the disease process from the point of
19	view of a biologist to treating patients who are at
20	risk, which is the point of view of a clinician.
21	Right now the approval process, the
22	evaluation process is taken from the point of view of

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1	the clinician. That isn't necessarily that is not
2	the only view, and it certainly is not necessarily a
3	view that leads to rational drug development, but it
4	is a view which is very patient oriented, but it is
5	not oriented towards disease understanding.
6	DR. LIPICKY: Right. I think that that's
7	a correct statement.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right.
9	DR. LIPICKY: And I must say I agree with
10	Jay in that I object to that.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right.
12	DR. LIPICKY: I think that it is bad for
13	us to undermine that interest. I don't see an
14	alternative unfortunately.
15	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But I think that's
16	the point. We all would like to be biologists, but we
17	all end up being clinicians.
18	DR. FLEMING: By the way, I'm completely
19	endorsing that the insight of the biologist is key
20	here and that it should be used in guiding drug
21	development, but what I'm arguing is ultimately what
22	should lead to approval of and use of an intervention,

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the fact that it is biologically active or the fact 1 that it is clinically effective? 2 3 DR. LIPICKY: Right. DR. FLEMING: The biologist can take the 4 5 agent that's biologically active, but doesn't provide 6 clinical benefit. I will be happy to take the agent 7 that's clinically effective. Ultimately I try to put myself in the 8 position of a patient when I decide what it is that we 9 10 ultimately need to show in a clinical trial, and I'm 11 not arguing against the importance of the biological 12 mechanisms as providing us important insight into the 13 interventions that we should be studying and the 14 plausibility of their efficacy, but ultimately I want to document that efficacy before I as a patient am 15 convinced about efficacy and safety. 16 17 DR. LIPICKY: No, Ι understand the pragmatic thing, but I think one has to recognize the 18 19 kind of truth to the statement that although mortality 20 is very attractive, it may be a surrogate for what we 21 really want to know. 22 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But we are all saying

1	the same thing, reiterating. I'm almost tempted to
2	imagine that someone is going to create a cartoon with
3	a tombstone, the epitaph on the tombstone saying, "My
4	heart was smaller."
5	DR. FISHER: Milt, before we move on to
6	analysis, and I know we all want to preserve a lot of
7	time for analysis, two questions about your endpoints.
8	One was the one I mentioned before, the
9	concomitant meds., if that really changes.
10	And the second thing is under
11	cardiovascular events, in such an event as life
12	threatening arrhythmia, a drug would be approved if
13	you reduced life threatening arrhythmia.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: It doesn't I hope
15	it doesn't say that.
16	DR. FISHER: Do I read the sentence
17	starting on Line 752? "Such events include myocardial
18	infarction, stroke, as well as pulmonary embolism."
19	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Life threatening
20	arrhythmia here is not nonsustained VT. It is
21	supposed to mean sustained VT or VF.
22	DR. LIPICKY: Life threatening.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Life threatening, not
2	potentially life threatening. Life threatening.
3	DR. FISHER: Okay, but I mean there have
4	been studies where you reduce VT. How long is
5	sustained VT? With VF it's hard to argue against
6	that.
7	DR. THADANI: Thirty seconds
8	DR. LIPICKY: Well, I think is what you're
9	saying, Lloyd, that that's an EKG finding and not a
10	clinical finding?
11	DR. FISHER: Well, that's the way I read
12	it, in part. Obviously I misunderstand it.
13	DR. LIPICKY: Did you mean that, Milton?
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Maybe the word
15	"immediately life threatening" is
16	DR. LIPICKY: But that's still an EKG
17	finding.
18	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Well
19	DR. FISHER: If it's VF I'll go with it.
20	DR. DiMARCO: You mean the arrhythmia
21	itsalf is life threatening at the time.
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes.

1	DR. DiMARCO: Not that it portends future
2	risk.
3	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right. That's
4	what I mean. How do you say that?
5	PARTICIPANT: Well, it depends. I mean,
6	it's sudden death, I suppose.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But they okay.
8	We'll be very specific. Okay. No problem. I've got
9	it.
10	One thing which we haven't discussed which
11	the guidelines talk about, before we go into analysis
12	we're still in Section 5.2 is whether the
13	analysis of there's a statement in the guidelines
14	that the best way of analyzing death is all cause
15	mortality. That's the least biased, most
16	comprehensive approach.
17	The guideline and there's been lots of
18	discussions about this is less definitive about the
19	analysis of hospitalizations, and I just wanted to
20	talk about this for just a minute.
21	In many clinical trials, the analysis of
22	hospitalizations, there is not an analysis of

hospitalizations for any reason. It's a cause specific analysis, whereas mortality tends to be death for any reason.

And this guideline, and I want to emphasize, has gone back and forth on this issue and right now is worded in such a way as to try to make both points of view happy and may, in fact, have failed miserably in doing so.

But the guideline now states that one can specify cause specific hospitalization as the endpoint, but one needs analyze all to hospitalizations regardless of cause in order to make sure that a beneficial effect on a cause specific hospitalization is not accompanied by an increase in hospitalizations reason, for other given the uncertainty in the classification process.

And that is slightly different than a previous version of this document that actually had a stated preference for all hospitalizations regardless of cause, and in fact, I have noticed that in Section 5.2.4, Line 781, that a line remains from the old version of this document, and that line says,

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1 "Composite endpoints that include all events, death and hospitalization for any reason are preferred over 2 cause specific composites." That is a holdover from 3 4 the previous version. 5 And I just wanted to get a sense from this 6 committee as to whether there is any preference for cause specific or all cause hospitalization. The 8 issue here is not mortality. The issue is 9 hospitalization, and I specifically would like to ask both John and Dan to address this because this comes 10 11 up all the time in arrythmia trials, all the time in arrythmia trials, and in heart failure we have lived 12 13 a little bit of a dichotomous life in that we have 14 felt very comfortable saying that in arrythmia trials it should be all cause, but in heart failure trials we 15 16 can do cause specific. 17 That may or may not be fair. So I really would like both John and Dan to address this in a way 18 19 that helps advance the guidelines. 20 John? 21 DR. DiMARCO: Yeah. Having tried to

assign causes even though, you know, that wasn't the

primary endpoint, it is so difficult that you run into problems that I think the trend is that you have to look at all endpoints.

Now, could you possibly define some endpoint, you know, if you're looking at people with Class 1 symptoms or Class 2 symptoms and you're looking at delay of progression? Do you have to count everyone who goes into the hospital for, you know, prostrate surgery or knee surgery or something like that?

So you might say nonelective hospitalizations, but I think that you're going to get your most certain data if you look all hospitalizations simply because I can't tell the difference between an admission for dyspnea from heart failure, dyspnea for, you know, chronic obstructive and a pulmonary infection lung disease, aggravates heart failure, admission for arrhythmia which might cause heart failure or might be related to worsening of heart failure. All of those things are terrible.

And, you know, we tried to say, well,

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1	let's look at cardiac mortality. Sure, if you're
2	looking at sick people, most of the events are
3	cardiac. If you're looking at people with Class 4
4	heart failure, most of the events are heart failure,
5	but I don't think you can really make the distinction
6	in a lot of cases, except for these elective surgical
7	procedures perhaps.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: So your preference
9	would be?
10	DR. DiMARCO: All cause.
11	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: All cause mortality
12	plus all cause hospitalization?
13	DR. DiMARCO: Yes.
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Dan.
15	DR. RODEN: I really don't have very much
16	to add, except that I continue to be troubled by the
17	whole idea of this combined endpoint that somehow
18	equates and "equates" is the wrong word death
19	and hospitalization as sort of a and maybe this
20	isn't the right time to talk about it or put the issue
21	on the table but you know, it seems to me that, you
	lf

know, one is a more serious endpoint than the other,

and the obvious rationale for using combined endpoints is to keep the numbers involved in trials such as this manageable.

I can see the arguments on both sides, but I continue to be uncomfortable with composite endpoints, particularly composite endpoints that combined two or three or four different kinds of endpoints, some of which are clearly much more serious than others.

I really don't have anything to add to what John said in terms of classification. You know, he did it in some trials, but I've also sat on events committees, and it becomes pretty pathetic when the cause of death is assigned by a majority vote. You know, people die for some reason and just because a majority of the committee thinks one thing and a minority thinks another doesn't make either side right.

So I vote for or I would be inclined to say total mortality certainly, and the hospitalization issue, I think there must be a way to get ide of, you know, elective medial or, you k now, elective,

elective, you know, anterior cruciate ligament repairs or something, but otherwise I think I'd go for total hospitalizations.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. I just want to keep on going down the committee here because this is such a controversial issue, and we keep on looking at this in different ways, and I think that the one thing which is very reassuring is that as far as I can tell from the literature, every drug which has had an effect on cause specific hospitalization has also had an effect on all cause hospitalization.

The ones I can think of -- tell me if I'm wrong -- dig., ACE inhibitors, and beta blockers have all affected all cause hospitalization as well as -- the magnitude of the effect is different. Don't get me wrong. The magnitude of the effect is much smaller for all cause, but a significant effect has been seen in databases on all cause as well as cause specific, and that's a true statement.

Yes, that's true in the dig. trial, beta blocker trial, and ACE inhibitor trials. The only exception I know of is one trial which is the solve

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1	(phonetic) prevention trial, prevention trial, which
2	technically one is but in both the solve treatment
3	trial, as well as the consensus study, all cause plus
4	all cause was statistically significant.
5	DR. DiMARCO: The only thing is is there
6	a problem if you have a large number of these
7	unrelated hospitalizations in the background in terms
8	of sizing the trial. I think that's the difficulty.
9	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, and of course,
10	the sicker the patients, the less likely you are to
11	run into those because a lot of Class 4 patients don't
12	undergo orthopedic procedures.
13	DR. RODEN: And if they were to undergo an
14	orthopedic procedure, they'd be stuck in the hospital
15	because they have classical heart failure.
16	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's a problem.
17	Rob, any thoughts on this? I just want to
18	go down the
19	DR. CALIFF: I've wavered on this quite a
20	bit. It's obvious that the most persuasive case is
21	alvays all cause/all cause. If you show you reduce
22	again, the principle being that patients would rather,

in general, not be dead and they'd rather not be in the hospital. So from the Tom Fleming purely empirical care about the patient instead of biology point of view, that would be the best.

But I think there is a strong argument to be made in the heart failure population that I agree with all cause mortality because I don't think you can really tell the cause of death and also because there can be competing increasing in amount of way and causes of death in other ways that you would not want to discount.

But I think for the hospitalization case, particularly the more you get away from Class 4 heart failure, the argument that the true treatment effect can be diluted by less relevant types of hospitalizations, minor things, et cetera, is a strong one.

So I would be very much in favor of where you think you can do it all cause/all cause, and as a second preference, where it's the most sensible, heart failure specific hospitalization, but still measuring everything because you want to guard against accepting

1 However, we have to be sure to accept perhaps all cause/all cause, but measure everything 2 3 report everything because you 4 nonuniformity therapy of effect, and if the 5 distribution of hospitalizations is different in the 6 population in which the drug is to be applied than the 7 randomized sample, you can have some paradoxical and 8 dangerous findings.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho.

DR. THADANI: I think my preference is all cause/all cause. Obviously mortality is not the issue. Hospitalizations sometime get confounded.

Now, supposing you're using a drug, for example, a beta blocker, in a patient who has got mild COPD and he gets worsening. He's hospitalized because of the drug. Is it related really to the therapy?

I mean, I buy John's point. You know, operation is one thing, but I think this is the best way to do it. Perhaps we should collect data, cardiovascular or cardiopulmonary -- I don't know -- because patient, Class 4, gets some infection or whatever because heart failure is worse.

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vascular.

So you have to

So many not only several cardiovascular and pulmonary, as opposed to others, I think we are digging for small issues. Another important issue, I think when you combine the composite endpoint of mortality plus hospitalization, I would like to make sure that the mortality is not going in the wrong direction. when a patient is dead, he's dead. make sure it is coming in the right direction. It may not benefit it, but as long as we are not getting more patients for the sake of less hospitalization, I think they should be taken together rather than dissecting the issue if you've got a composite endpoint.

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CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob?

DR. TEMPLE: The main reason for using all cause as opposed to some subset is not that you can't tell what the cause is. You can use an independent committee to decide that and be sure that it won't introduce a bias into the study. It may introduce inaccuracies, but that's not your biggest problem.

The reason for counting them all is that

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you're worried about effects that go the wrong way.

The luxury of using all cause mortality is fine if most of the deaths are due to the underlying disease you're talking about. In a very long trial where people are dying of many other causes, you may just make it impossible to discover what you want to discover, and those are practical limitations that need to be looked at.

Just as an example outside cardiovascular medicine, if you thought you had a preventative treatment for melanoma and insisted that you show an improved survival, you'd never be able to do it because it's not an important enough cause of death to show up.

So you wouldn't design a trial that way.

You'd look for presence of melanoma, not survival.

The other thing is one of the reasons that people use combined endpoints that seem to have different weights of endpoints, which I think is a problem, like death plus hospitalization, is that they really want to look at hospitalization, but you don't want to let them not count dead bodies because that's

1 even worse than hospitalization. 2 So it isn't that the two are of equal 3 weight. They're not, but you've got an endpoint 4 that's going to be driven by the hospitalization, and 5 you don't want people to get away with having deaths. 6 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, that latter 7 point, that last point is very important because Dan had said that he didn't think that they were equally 8 9 weighted. I think that the guiding principle is that 10 the combined endpoint is more likely to reflect the hospitalization, but hospitalization using a worst 11 rank analysis -- I hate to use that term -- but 12 13 hospitalization which includes an analysis of outcomes worse than hospitalization so that one doesn't get 14 into the issue of competing risk. 15 16 Tom, is that a -- Tom, Dave, Lloyd, that's okay? 17 18 Because, in fact, most analyses of death 19 and hospitalization that are timed to first event are driven entirely by the hospitalization. 20 21 DR. FISHER: Of course, one way to reduce 22 hospitalization is to have a lot of early deaths.

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right.
2	DR. FISHER: Which doesn't seem so
3	wonderful.
4	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right, which is why
5	you do the combined analysis.
6	DR. TEMPLE: We'll come back to this in
7	5.3.2.
8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Jay?
9	DR. COHN: We may be mixing efficacy and
10	safety here because efficacy would be a reduction in
11	mortality and in hospitalization for the disease we're
12	treating. Safety would really relate to the potential
13	adverse effects on other causes for hospitalization.
14	And in the best of all worlds, if we want
15	to have a highly powered study, we would try to look
16	at heart failure deaths and heart failure
17	hospitalizations.
18	Now, we all know the problem with
19	separating out deaths and hospitalizations, but as Bob
20	has pointed out, yes, there will be inaccuracies if
21	you have an endpoint committee, but you can eliminate
22	bias, and I think that it is still possible to learn

something from cause specific hospitalizations certainly and perhaps even cause specific deaths.

So I don't think we should just throw it away and say, "Aw, we can't do it. Forget it." I think under certain circumstances if you had an antiarrhythmic drug and you only thought it could work on sudden death, I don't think it would be inappropriate to power the study for a sudden death endpoint, recognizing that there's going to be inaccuracies, but having a committee charged to make that judgment with as much evidence as they could.

And you would lose a lot by forcing yourself to look at all cause mortality with a drug which was only aimed at a very specific mechanism of death.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Jay, I'm going to take the Chairman's prerogative of not asking people to respond to that because my sense is that -- I'm grateful that your example is, in fact, not part of the heart failure guidelines because my sense is it would evoke a lot of comment that might, in fact, disagree with what you just said.

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1	DR. COHN: Well, I would hope so.
2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But my hope is that
3	that can be discussed at a time other than this
4	meeting, and so we can keep going.
5	Well, what I hear people saying is
6	actually pretty consistent, which is that there is a
7	preference for all cause hospitalization, plus all
8	cause mortality, but that no one would deny a
9	sponsor's right to specify all cause mortality plus a
10	cause specific hospitalization, and that such analyses
11	might, in fact, be useful and insightful, but we would
12	like to see the alternative analysis performed, as
13	well, in order to provide appropriate reassurance that
14	the prespecified analysis is not biased.
15	DR. LIPICKY: But I think it goes both
16	ways, right? You want to see both analyses.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: You want to see both
18	analyses.
19	DR. LIPICKY: Cause specific and all
20	cause.
21	PARTICIPANT: One could be a primary
22	endpoint.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right, and whatever you specify as a primary endpoint, think carefully about it and be prepared to justify it.

Let me just, before moving to analysis, I just want to -- this document makes clear that the analysis of long term outcome in patients when an indication is being pursued for a long term treatment -- this is an indication not for short term IV use, but when an indication is being pursued for long term treatment -- the guidelines makes clear, and this is different compared to the previous guideline, that sponsors need to evaluate the long term effects of the drug on major events whether or not an indication for a reduction in risk of those events is being pursued.

That is a new element of these guidelines. It does not say you need to do a mortality trial in every one. It says that you need to come up with an estimate of the risk of the effect of treatment on the risk of major events; that it can reasonably provide a point estimate as to what the treatment effect is; and that there is one element in the -- there's one specific aspect of the document which is -- and I

apologize for this -- a little bit out of date. 1 2 Section 7.3.1, the third bullet. Oh, it's Line 1350. 3 That last sentence should be struck because it is arbitrary, but the statement still 4 5 stands otherwise. 6 "It is important to delineate an effect of 7 drug on all cause mortality and combined risk of death 8 or hospitalization for any reason whether or not an 9 indication is being pursued, and such delineation 10 should be sufficiently precise that an adverse effect 11 of meaningful size can be detected." 12 And if that sounds sufficiently vague, 13 that's okay because attempts to define that more 14 precisely than that do not necessarily make the 15 situation better, but it is really, really important 16 from a safety point of view or from the assessment of risk to benefit that the effect of a drug on major 17

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DR. TEMPLE: I think I want to raise a

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events long term be an integral part of any drug

development program even if the indication being

pursued is symptomatic status change alone.

Bob.

question I asked before. That certainly seems reasonable for any class you're not familiar with. Do you have a view yet on whether that's equally true for a class of drugs where you're pretty sure you know the answer, such as ACE inhibitors?

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I can give you my own

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I can give you my own personal view, and I would say that for ACE inhibitors, if you can be persuaded -- this is lots of ifs, ands, and buts, and one doesn't want to make this too complicated -- but if you think it's an ACE inhibitor, I don't think there's any reason to address that in a class of drugs with an ACE inhibitor.

Things get a little bit more complicated when drugs have multiple mechanisms of action, and they get a little bit more complicated if the mechanism is similar but not identical, for example, A2 antagonists and ACE inhibitors.

DR. TEMPLE: I agree completely, but one of the issues is how to work up a drug in the same class as other drugs, and there you do have some information.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. Barry.

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1 DR. MASSIE: You may or may not want to 2 add another sentence at the end saying you want the 3 data you need to estimate the risk to benefit ratio, and that information might include other information 4 5 about the same class of the drug or the information 6 that you would get about this drug or a combination of 7 the two probably in many cases, and that's the reason for getting this point estimate. 8 9 DR. DiMARCO: Does that place an unfair burden on the first drug to be approved, and then the 10 11 second drug can just jump on? 12 DR. LIPICKY: Yes. 13 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But that's life. 14 PARTICIPANT: But they get the market --15 DR. MASSIE: But also I don't think that 16 this committee would take two. It depends on how 17 robust the experience is with the two, but I think at 18 the end of captopril and analopril we were not ready 19 to say that all ACE inhibitors still did something. 20 It took a third and a fourth to really get us to that roint, and that's because I think the captopril 21 mortality experience was very small at that time. 22

1	Analopril was only consensus.
2	So it sort of depends how much is in the
3	first case.
4	PARTICIPANT: So you really need a very
5	strong class effect.
6	DR. LIPICKY: I would like to get just a
7	little bit of clarification of the word "long term"
8	here. So if I had two, three month exercise tolerance
9	trials that you said were okay and I could exclude
10	fairly reasonable adverse effect on mortality, say, I
11	could say it wasn't for sure one and a half times that
12	of placebo; is that long term data?
13	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think there are two
14	separate issues, Ray, and the document tries to
15	specifically address it.
16	The reason to go long term is for two
17	reasons. One, if you go long term, you're more likely
18	to have an adequate number of events, and second is if
19	you go long term, you might find effects which are
20	different than short term.
21	And so I think that the example that you
22	have demonstrated would not be adequate in a patient

- 1 population that would have few events at three months,
- 2 but might be adequate for a patient population that
- 3 was so sick that most people would be expected to be
- 4 dead at three months.
- 5 So that's why I think that it isn't so
- 6 much the numerical number of months of follow-up which
- 7 is important, but to make sure that the length of
- 8 follow-up is appropriate to the severity of disease
- 9 being evaluated.
- DR. LIPICKY: Right, but that the duration
- of follow-up is important. I guess I'd like to get a
- 12 feeling for what the documentation for that is. It
- 13 basically is milrinone and flosequinine and period?
- 14 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: No.
- DR. LIPICKY: Or it is bunches?
- 16 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: In terms of adverse?
- DR. LIPICKY: Yes, where the long term
- 18 outcome differs from the short term outcome.
- 19 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: The only example I
- 20 know of is flosequinine. Milrinone I'm not persuaded
- is a very good example because at least in the
- 22 published literature there are no data that milrinone

1 produced short term benefits. 2 DR. LIPICKY: I see. So then the concern over long term data is because of one drug and the 3 4 clinical trials from one drug? 5 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, I'm so sorry. Maybe I should clarify this. The milrinone data is 6 7 relevant here in the sense that only long term did they accumulate enough events in order to answer the 8 9 question. 10 If you curtailed the milrinone database at two weeks or four weeks or eight weeks or three 11 12 months, you know, the trends may have been adverse, but there was no P value. There was no clear signal. 13 14 So, again, that's why I emphasized there 15 are two reasons to go long term. One is adequacy of 16 events, and second is for adequacy of the duration of 17 therapy, matching the duration of therapy to the natural history of the disease in the patients being 18 studied. 19 20 For example, six months might be more than ionotrope dependent 21 adequate in an IV 22 population, but would not be adequate for

asymptomatic LV dysfunction.

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DR. MASSIE: Maybe to amplify that a little bit, I think this gets to the same point, is that the types of patients that are enrolled in six month, symptomatic, exercise, time limited experiences differ markedly from the types of people who are enrolled in our long term morbidity and mortality studies. Usually they're Class 2. They can exercise. They tend to be younger, and they tend to be very different.

And you could actually get no hint about how adverse a drug would be at the end of six months not only because of the duration of the study or, as Milton pointed out, the severity of the illness, but you might get a different patient population.

Even in the milrinone experience, Class 3 didn't look bad. It took Class 4 patients to see how bad things were.

DR. LIPICKY: But you've confused me a little bit now because I was following you. I thought this was all event rate driven, and if you had enough events in the period of time that you studied the

2	criterion, that that was enough, but now you're saying
3	it's not event rate driven. It's somehow or another
4	clinically driven.
5	DR. MASSIE: Well, I think it should be a
6	little bit of both, that is to say, it depends on the
7	population. Certainly you need enough events to come
8	up with an estimate, but you could probably find a
9	population that might have events, but might not have
LO	a discrepancy between the events and the placebo
L1	this is hypothetical and the active therapy because
L 2	they're not at risk for whatever it is that's toxic
L3	about that drug at this stage of their disease.
L 4	DR. LIPICKY: Right. Okay.
L5	DR. MASSIE: It's possible, but I think if
L6	you really want to know about mortality, you do have
L7	to have some time duration, and you have to have some
L8	six people in it.
L9	DR. THADANI: Also, I think probably the
20	sample size on exercise studies are very small. You
21	have 100 patients, 200 patients maybe.
22	DR. LIPICKY: You don't find anything with

patients to make some statement of that would fit the

1 100 patients. You have to have 800, 500. 2 DR. THADANI: No, but I mean if you look at the flosequinine data base, maybe the total sample 3 as opposed to exposing, 4 size, 400, say, 4,000 5 patients. 6 Say if you had a large exercise study. 7 say, six months or three months, and you have 3,000 8 patients in the study with different disease, then at 9 least you get a comfort level that you're not going in the wrong direction. 10 11 So I think you could design studies which 12 could look symptomatic at improvement with 13 reasonable follow-up, you know, whether three month, 14 six month, as long as the sample is large enough and your events are not going in the wrong direction. 15 16 And the reason I think we run into trouble even with flosequinine, it was going in the wrong 17 18 direction. Although exercise improved, there was a 19 noise, and you were not sure. So I think you can 20 reduce that noise by increasing the sample size, at leart from my perspective. 21

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Rob.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER:

1	DR. CALIFF: Milton, I presume in the
2	analysis part we're going to address some general
3	thoughts about how to deal with the less frequent but
4	more important endpoint trending in the wrong
5	direction?
6	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: We will make a point
7	of doing that.
8	DR. CALIFF: I think it's really
9	important.
10	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Well, why
11	don't we move to analysis now?
12	Okay. The analysis section is divided
13	into or will be discussed in two main parts. One is
14	the designation of primary and secondary endpoints,
15	and the second is principle of analysis, and, Dave,
16	you're going to take primary and secondary endpoints.
17	DR. DeMETS: Well, I was going to confine
18	my comments to the section that I guess is labeled,
19	you know, 5.3, which is primarily on page 16.
20	First of all, I think what I think of an
21	analysis plan is that you have some detail sin the
22	protocol proper, but perhaps more details in an

appendix to the protocol, and at least what's not clear from what's written here is exactly how much detail one needs.

I recently reviewed protocols which are pages and pages, including pages and pages of shell tables which I don't particularly consider an analysis plan, but nevertheless I'm thinking a few pages of detail relative to the primary and secondary outcomes.

I also think that the analysis plan should cover not just the primary and secondary, but also some statements about the analysis of baseline covariants, the compliance issue, as well as toxicity, which comes later, not part of my charge.

I think Tom might get to this, but I want to say that the intention to treat principle, of course, is key to the analysis of the primary and secondary outcomes, and my concern about this principle, I endorse it, but I find lots of plans that are look alike plans that are being promoted, for example, referred to as being intention to treat when they really mean if you took the drug. As you randomize and you took the drug, then you're in.

Those kind of variations seem to be popping up, and people very sincerely believe they're doing intention to treat. I don't think that's true. So I think you need to be very careful about how you define that in this document, and I think it is defined clearly, but maybe it needs to be put in bold letters.

So most of the things that are listed on page 16, I think, I'm in favor of with a couple of issues that I wanted to discuss in a little more detail.

But before I do that, there is one area that I don't think is discussed much at all, and that's the issue of interim analysis for your primary and secondary events. I mean trials of heart failure generally have a monitoring process of some kind. I don't see much discussion of that, and maybe it's covered somewhere else in the general document that the agency has, but I think that would be helpful.

And maybe we can get around to talking bout what maybe Rob was getting to, if things are going in the wrong direction or going in different

directions.

But the specific things that I wanted to raise, on page 16, of course, one needs to specify a primary or a couple of primaries and a few secondaries. We don't want to have a long list of secondaries, which gets you, but where I begin to have problems, for example, the Lines 805 and 806. Trials that failed to preserve primary effect can't analyze the secondary, and on the surface that seems true, but it can get complicated.

Suppose your primary is a composite event and your leading secondary is death. Does that mean you ignore death just because it wasn't listed as a primary?

I'm also not sure I would define a primary as the one that you allocate alpha to in the secondary as long as you don't allocate alpha to -- I mean, that's true perhaps, but the primary is the one you design your trial around and the one you believe you want to have an effect on.

So the specific issue of the composite -- say your composite outcome is your primary and death

is your secondary. If you don't allocate -- if you declare death to be your second primary, then you would allocate alpha to it presumably. We can discuss how much later.

But if you don't declare the secondary, then you don't allocate any alpha according to this definition, and I think it's a tough problem, but I think it's one that I think you wrestle with in several heart failure trials, as you know.

My preference would be to have -- if death is the primary, then it's not such a problem because a composite might be the secondary, and things follow in a logical order, but if it's the other way around, which is often the case, that the composite is your primary, what you do about death, I think, needs to be clarified, and I have my own personal preference on that.

This issue of the composite and the primary though also leads to a dilemma with respect to intermonitoring, to get back to that, which I commented briefly at the heart failure meetings a few weeks ago.

1 death is a primary, is our first 2 primary, and your composite is your second primary, you allocate .04 to the first one and .01 to the 3 second, something. You monitor on your primary, and 4 5 if you get the result early, you guit. If you have a 6 harmful effect, you might quit. 7 That, while it's not simple, at least it's more straightforward. 8 9 The other way around though, suppose the composite is your first primary or your primary and 10 11 death is the secondary. In reality, in heart failure 12 trials you are going to probably monitor on mortality 13 because that's what you get immediately. The other information, especially if it's 14 cause specific, hospitalization, let's say, comes in 15 It comes dragging in. Even if it's all cause 16 17 hospitalization, you still may not get it immediately. So you wind up monitoring on mortality 18 much of the time, and yet your primary is something 19 else, and how to work out those details also gets 20 complicated. 21

The last issue I want to comment on is the

allocation of alpha itself. I guess I'd make a sidebar here and make an appeal that if we use the term "spending alpha," what we really mean by that is repeatedly testing on an outcome through the course of the trial interim analysis part, and choose some other term like "allocation of alpha" when we have more than one outcome because these are different issues. They are not totally unrelated, but they are still different issues.

If we're ever going to talk about the issue of allocation of alpha, I don't think it's necessarily the right thing to do to have a composite which is death plus something and death as the two outcomes and divide alpha by two because you have two outcomes. Those are highly correlated, and depending on the mixture of death in that composite, you might adjust differently.

So the issue of allocation of alpha, I think, is more complicated than just dividing by the number of outcomes you happen to declare as primaries.

So I think that's sort of a short version of what I have to say, other than the issue of sample

1	size, which also appears in this section. I've used
2	sample size as sort of a part of the design section,
3	and while you definitely need to have it here in the
4	kind of detail that's necessary, I would hope that it
5	would be more in the design section and not something
6	that people think about at the time of analysis.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Why don't we
8	go on directly to Tom's comments, and we can discuss
9	everything in a unified fashion?
10	Tom.
11	DR. FLEMING: I'll just use a single
12	transparency here.
13	The principles of analysis, Section 5.3.2,
14	relate to a couple of concepts. One is the intention
15	to treat analysis, and the second relates to handling
16	of dropouts or missing information.
17	I'm largely in agreement with the essence
18	of what's in the document on these two pages. The
19	intention to treat analysis provides two major
20	clinical or two major scientific benefits. One is
21	that it preserves the integrity of randomization.
22	Randomization gives us comparability, but

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we only retain that comparability if we continue to follow all patients to the intended clinical endpoint. If we have patients who are lost to follow-up, if we have patients who become noncompliant and we lose the data on the clinical endpoint, if we have patients who take concomitant meds. and we stop following them for that reason to the clinical endpoint, those are reasons that could well or factors that could well differ between the intervention and control arms, and we lose the integrity of randomization.

It's also, I believe, the most clinically relevant analysis in that unless we can tell in advance who's going to be noncompliant, who's going to be unable to tolerate a therapy, what we wish to know is globally what is the outcome. That's an analysis that includes all people.

So the goal then is to follow all patients for the clinical endpoint, including those patients who for some reason would discontinue early.

Now, the second part of the document and this section deals with what approaches you would take if you haven't followed all people, and I think it

appropriately addresses concerns that arise with the completer's analysis. I won't add to that.

It also points out the last observation carried forward also has the same problems as the completer analysis, but also suffers in that it commingles early and late effects, which I not only agree with, but I would add to that it also commingles natural history changes over time because if you're carrying forward, for example, in the placebo arm and natural history is changing over time and you're wanting to assess at a later point in time, you're carrying forward early natural history assessments to later points in time.

The worst rank assignment is one that I want to spend a little bit of time talking about because there's a setting in which I think it makes sense. I call "okay for death," although more generally I would say it's okay in the context that is stated here, which is for outcomes that are of major importance, but it's not okay for missing information.

So let me try to be explicit with a trivial example. Suppose we're comparing placebo with

suppose on the placebo arm we're going to have three patients die, one who will be alive with symptoms and

who will be alive with good quality of life.

Suppose the treatment yields in essence in five other patients. The patient who is alive, this patient is correspondingly alive. This patient is correspondingly alive with symptoms, but the three patients who would have died, they would all survive now, two with symptoms and one without symptoms.

So clearly this is a treatment that provides important clinical benefit. In terms of overall survivorship, it improves survival from 40 percent to 100 percent, but it's acknowledged that there's more to it than survivorship. So maybe we're looking at not only surviving, but surviving with good quality of life, symptom free survivorship, in which case the placebo would have only 20 percent of people alive free of symptoms, whereas the treatment arm would have 40 percent of people alive free of rymptoms.

On the other hand, if we said those people

who die we're going to just leave out of our analysis, we're going to condition on survivorship and analyze the data conditioning only on those people who are alive to see whether or not the treatment was effective.

We find in the placebo arm that of those survivors, 50 percent are free of symptoms, whereas on the treatment arm of the survivors, only 40 percent are free of symptoms.

So if we don't use this approach here of assigning a worst score to those people that have a bad thing to death and simply eliminate them from the analysis, we would get the very misleading conclusion that this treatment is ineffective because there are fewer percent, 40 percent, of the survivors that are free of symptoms than on the control arm, clearly a very misleading conclusion since this treatment clearly is effective.

So the essence of the conclusion here is not only is it okay in my view when you have -- let's say you're looking at a study where the primary endpoint is symptom improvement. Not only is it okay

1 to assign those people that have a serious major 2 consequence, such as death, the worst score. believe it's imperative in order to have a readily 3 4 interpretable conclusion. essentially what 5 I think we 6 required to do when we're looking at symptoms is to 7 look at the endpoint symptom free survival.

Now, on the other hand, suppose what we're talking about is not events happening to these people that are deaths, but rather events or consequences to these people that lead to missing information. If we assign the worst possible rank when these three people simply have missing information, it could certainly be a biased analysis because it's entirely unclear whether the people who are missing are like those people who aren't missing or unlike those people who aren't missing.

And a lot of times we get the impression the worst rank assignment must be a conservative analysis. It's a worst case analysis. That's not the worst case analysis.

In this case, if we assigned a worst rank

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analysis and these three people on placebo are simply missing, we will get the impression there's a big difference. Treatment is much better than placebo if you assign these three people a worst rank analysis, when in reality these three people may be doing just fine. They may have just become lost to follow-up.

So the bottom line is this worst rank assignment is not only okay. I think it's imperative when you have data, quote, unquote, missing because of death or bad event. In fact, in my view it's not missing at all. It's there and it's a bad outcome.

But when you truly have missing information, this approach is as flawed as the completers analysis and the last observation carried forward, i.e., they are all flawed, and the only real positive solution is making every possible reasonable attempt to keep missing information to a minimum.

DR. THADANI: What do you do if information is missing though? I know your trial is over, and you can count the bodies or you can look at the death registry and they're still alive, and you're saying it's biased. What do you do with it?

DR. FLEMING: Well, certainly to an extent it will be a reality that some "missingness" is going to occur, and if we're able to keep that "missingness" to levels of one percent or below, for example, of course, then the amount of "missingness" -- the impact it will have depends also on how frequent the events are.

In a trial in which 20 percent of people have events, one percent with missing data will be less likely to impact the integrity of that analysis than in a study that has only one percent of people having events where one percent are also missing information.

so the bottom line is if there's missing information, it compromises the integrity of the analysis or the reliability of the conclusion. However, if the amount of "missingness" is very small relative to the amount of events that we have, then it's likely that that "missingness" will have a relatively small effect.

DR. THADANI: Say, for example, in an exercise database, he didn't die, but he got

hospitalized for worsening failure. Then, you know, 1 2 you could give him a zero score, too, because he was not able to exercise and he became Class 2 to 4. 3 4 Can you apply that? As long as you've got 5 some information on the patient, it depends on what 6 endpoint you're looking at. 7 Well, according to the DR. FLEMING: document as it currently reads, I think it handles 8 9 that situation. It says worse rank assignment. 10 this approach, patients who experience clinical events 11 of major importance are assigned the worst rank." 12 For the argument that I was giving, I not 13 only accept that. I strongly endorse that approach, 14 and you were saying, I thought, if you were looking at symptoms and someone becomes hospitalized, I think one 15 16 could argue that hospitalization is a bad event, and 17 in fact, possibly worse event than the symptom outcome that you're looking at. 18 What we're trying to achieve here is a 19 20 good outcome, i.e., a patient who is alive and symptom free or alive and symptom and hospital free 21 somebody who has a bad outcome because of death or

hospitalization legitimately can be given a worst rank because they clearly have had a bad outcome.

The problem is when someone is missing information not because of death or hospitalization, but doesn't get your symptom assessment because they never came back, and if this happens, on rare occasion it's not going to have a substantial impact on your analysis, but if ít happens with considerable frequency, then all of these approaches that are laid out here, worst rank analysis, observation carry forward, and completers analysis, will all give you a sense, will all be analyses that you can do to get a sense of what these results or what the effect is, but the reliability of the conclusions will be less.

DR. THADANI: And, Dr. DeMets, you mentioned that the primary composite endpoint is negative, but for some reason, say, the death rate goes down. Yet the event rate is low and you can't be confident that if you do the next trial it will go the right way.

So I know you say you can't ignore it, but how confident can you feel that the trial is negative

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1	on the composite endpoint, but the death which was
2	secondary endpoint, there's a positive trend?
3	That really at least as a clinician I'm
4	asking you is there enough for approval. Are you
5	really mandating there's a trend and you have to go
6	large modality power with either enough event rate or
7	power to give you approval for that indication and not
8	just say it produces death because of this?
9	DR. DeMETS: Well, my assumption was that
10	you're only interested in this discussion if the
11	secondary endpoint of death is convincing. I would
12	understand a trend wouldn't be sufficient in my mind.
13	DR. CALIFF: Well, maybe, David, to carry
14	that a little further, if the primary endpoint is flat
15	out negative
16	DR. DeMETS: By negative do you mean
17	neutral or
18	DR. CALIFF: Yeah, neutral.
19	DR. DeMETS: Okay.
20	DR. CALIFF: How convincing would a
21	mortality result need to be to get your attention? I
22	mean I know the most conservative view would be if it

wasn't the primary endpoint, and the primary endpoint 1 2 was negative, you've, quote, spent all of your alpha. 3 It's over, and you've raised an interesting 4 hypothesis. 5 The most liberal view, I guess, would be 6 that since death is such an overwhelmingly important clinical endpoint, that if it was conventionally 7 8 significant as if it were the primary endpoint, then that would be convincing. 9 10 How does the statistician advise weighing 11 those things? 12 DR. DeMETS: Well, the first thing is 13 something you decide, you know, how you allocated your 14 alpha. If you didn't allocate anything, if it was just strictly a primary and a second -- if you 15 16 allocated alpha, you have some criteria to judge that 17 on. I mean, you may have made a stupid allocation, 18 but at least you made some decision. 19 If you haven't allocated alpha, 20 question is, you know, do you just ignore death 21 altogether, and I can tell you trials in pulmonary

disease, which I used to work in, that in fact

happened, and you know, I think we used common sense 1 and decided that mortality was -- I mean why are you worried about this?

> You're worried about that you'll dredge up some secondary outcome by chance alone that you just happened to stumble into, but I don't think, for example, death is just one of the many secondary outcomes.

> DR. THADANI: But that happened in the resterone (phonetic) trial. If you look at the first trial which came out in the New England Journal of Medicine, there was a 16 milligram dose, was 54 percent reduction in mortality. Cardiology was having an outcry the FDA didn't approve the drug because these patients could be all alive, and yet the big trial which was powered to count a lot more deaths went totally wrong direction.

> So you know, you are saying it never happened or just it's just a chance or something happened in that trial. Even when we counted the bodies they were wrong.

> > DR. DeMETS: Well, first of all, those are

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-	separate trials. So I'm not sure that it's
2	relevant to the problem I posed. I mean
3	DR. THADANI: It happened that the
4	mortality was
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Udho, that's not a
6	good example because, in fact, in that trial that you
7	referred to, the primary endpoint was, in fact,
8	achieved as well as the secondary endpoint of
9	mortality. The problem was that for all sorts of
10	reasons, maybe including the small number of events,
11	it couldn't be replicated, and in fact, went in the
12	opposite direction, and who knows what went on?
13	It's not a good example for the principle
14	being discussed.
15	DR. FISHER: It was also the dose response
16	pattern.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, it was.
18	DR. THADANI: But that's why I said the
19	number of the events. That was my initial question,
20	how many rents you'd need to be confident that you're
21	going to be positive. Are you going to be
22	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, it's a

different question where you allocate your alpha. DR. DeMETS: The one appeal I was making, 2 I don't think you should just divide alpha by two 3 because you have a primary and a composite and death as your two outcomes. You've got to adjust based on 5 6 the correlation that's implicit. 7 DR. MASSIE: Do you get more than .05 8 worth because the two are so highly correlated? 9 I mean, it seems to me because they're so highly correlated it shouldn't be .04 and .01 or 10 11 something that adds up to .05, but it should be 12 something that adds up to more than .05. Is that true 13 or not? 14 DR. MOYE: It depends on the degree of 15 correlation, but if you have two endpoints and let's 16 say they both absurdly are perfectly correlated, you 17 know, and Event A happens in a person and Event B 18 happens as well and if A doesn't happen, 19 doesn't happen. Then you look at the alpha for the 20 two experiments is the same -- sorry -- for the two endpoints is the same as the alpha for one.

So you get --

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1 DR. MASSIE: But the importance might be 2 that 30 percent of the combined endpoint would be 3 So there's that much correlation. 4 DR. Well, yeah, there's MOYE: 5 correlation, but the trick is figuring out exactly how much correlation there is, but you get substantial 6 7 alpha savings. 8 And to go back to Dave's other point about 9 are there circumstances when you can have a trial 10 which is negative for the primary endpoint and 11 positive for the secondary endpoint, I think if you 12 prospectively specify your alpha allocation -- I won't 13 use "spendings" -- the alpha allocation, then I think 14 that that's not a problem. 15 If you have a primary endpoint that you allocate .03 to and it comes in at .3 so that you're 16 way off, and you allocated .02 to the secondary 17 endpoint and you came in at .001, then there's no 18 problem with -- from my point of view, there's no 19 20 problem with calling that trial positive. You 21 ⊲till --

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Well,

I think

CALIFF:

DR.

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there's

universal agreement on that. The question is what if you didn't.

DR. MOYE: But if you don't allocate, if you don't allocate, then, you know, every decision you make has a down side. If somebody who is, I guess, alpha hypersensitive, would say that -- I mean, I recognize that there are going to be some times that I'm going to throw out the results of the baby with this bath water of alpha hypersensitivity, and I recognize that.

open the door for investigators, having announced with great fanfare what their primary endpoint is, and the primary endpoint is really the axis around which the trial revolves. You spend a great deal of care and deliberation working that primary endpoint up, making sure that you measure it with a good degree of accuracy and precision. I mean, that's chosen not randomly, but it's chosen because that's were you believe the effect is going to be.

Now, if you've done that and you're wrong about that, I disagree with the concept of kind of

pushing that primary endpoint which was held in high 1 2 regard into the scientific back water while you rush 3 up a secondary endpoint which perhaps you didn't anticipate. 4 5 I agree that this notion of I mean, primary and secondary endpoint is somewhat artificial, 6 but it requires investigators to make decisions 7 8 prospectively about where they think they're going to see the event. 9 10 If you decide to go by the secondary endpoint finding when you didn't prespecify alpha, 11 12 then you run the risk of having by chance obtained a sample where your primary endpoint was negative, your 13 secondary endpoint was positive when, in fact, that 14 15 really doesn't reflect what's going on in the 16 population, and from my point of view, that's what's 17 really paramount here, what's happening in the 18 population. 19 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I don't want this to evolve into a discussion of how one spends alpha. 20 21 DR. MOYE: Well, it's too late for that. 22 DR. FISHER: Contrary to what you think,

Milt, I'm not going to respond to that other than to say the February issue of <u>Controlled Clinical Trials</u> will have a long discussion about this.

I want to get back because of the limited

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I'm sorry, Lloyd.

There was one part of this alpha thing that I did want
to -- and, you know, whether or not one's alpha
receptors are up regulated or not --

(Laughter.)

time and be sure --

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: -- I just want to make sure that I understand one thing because what we are seeing now, and the examples which have preceded us on the alpha spending or the alpha allocation issue may or may not be good examples, there is one kind of example that we're seeing a lot of now, and I wanted to get people's comments on.

We are seeing trials where the primary -these are long term, big, multi-center, large scale
trials. The primary endpoint is a combined endpoint,
and let us not go into reasons why it's a combined
endpoint. It is, and it includes mortality and

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hospitalization, and let's not talk about whether it's 1 2 cause specific hospitalization or not. 3 The secondary endpoint or one of the secondary endpoints, but just for simplicity's sake, 4 5 let's say there's only one secondary endpoint that 6 happened to be mortality, and the two are going to be 7 correlated. They're not going to be correlated, Lem, 8 at 1.0. They're not going to be perfectly correlated, 9 but they are going to be correlated. 10 So the primary endpoint is a combined 11 endpoint of death and hospitalization. The secondary 12 endpoint, only one, is mortality alone, and there is 13 some correlation between the two. To what degree does a sponsor need to 14 15 assign alpha to the secondary endpoint of all cause 16 mortality, realizing that the sponsor has already 17 recognized mortality is very important because it's a 18 component of the primary combined endpoint? There's already a recognition that the 19 combined is going to be most 20 endpoint easily 21 interpreted if the components go in the

direction, the same direction.

Does the sponsor have to waste any allocation of alpha on the mortality in a design of that nature? Because we are going to see more and more trials like that because there is a tendency to consider those trials to be more reasonably sized than trials in which the all cause mortality would be the primary and the combined endpoint would be the secondary.

So since this is such an increasingly common situation for outcome study, I'd like to hear some just brief discussion as to how sponsors should deal with this situation, and what I like about this example is it goes away from the extreme examples that everyone can actually agree with.

This is an example where, you know, there's truly a middle point being discussed, and the question is: does the sponsor have to assign any alpha to the secondary endpoint of all cause mortality, or is it just assumed that if they went on all cause mortality -- and we're saying Udho -- we're going to address Udho's concerns -- let's say there are 500 deaths. It's not an issue of the number of

1 events. 2 The question is whether alpha allocation 3 here is helpful. Comments? 4 DR. LIPICKY: I think you have to specify 5 just a little bit more, and that is is the protocol the expectations of the people doing the study that 6 7 this is the equivalent of two primary endpoints in the sense that if they win on either one, that means that 8 9 there is a positive -- a finding that must have 10 attention paid to it. 11 So it's not primary and secondary. 12 do they carry equivalent weight. 13 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yeah, I think that 14 the reason why this would be -- I'm trying to make the 15 question actually more interesting than the automatic, 16 well, gee, you know, they achieved the primary .01. 17 I'm just assuming that, and they achieved mortality at 18 .01, but that wouldn't be a very interesting question 19 because everyone would agree how that should be 20 interpreted. 21 important question is The more they

achieved an effect on the combined endpoint of .1, but

1	hit mortality at .01. Mortality is the secondary
2	endpoint.
3	DR. LIPICKY: Well, I don't think it makes
4	any difference whether it's primary or secondary.
5	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's what I wanted
6	to know. That's what I want to know.
7	DR. LIPICKY: What conclusion do you want
8	to draw?
9	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: What conclusion do
10	you want to draw? What conclusion can you draw?
11	DR. LIPICKY: Right, and is the conclusion
12	you can draw dependent upon how the endpoints were
13	designated?
14	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right. Does it
15	depend on how the endpoints were designated?
16	DR. LIPICKY: Right.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: If it doesn't, then
18	a lot of people are wasting a lot of mental energy.
19	DR. LIPICKY: Correct.
20	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right.
21	DR. MASSIE: I just want to go back to
22	what I raised because I think this is the

1	nonstatistical view. They're correlated. You deserve
2	more than .05. Put them both primary and say .05, we
3	hit it for the combined, and .01, we hit it for
4	mortality.
5	DR. MOYE: I guess I would say that if you
6	have .05 to allocate, I would, number one, advocate
7	that alpha be allocated for both the primary endpoint
8	and for the secondary endpoint of total mortality.
9	And also, since they are dependent, then
10	the alpha I allocate doesn't have to add to .05
11	because of the dependency. I don't know exactly how
12	the numbers work out. It depends on the dependency,
13	but you may be able to allocate .035 for the primary
14	and something like .03 or .035 for the total
15	mortality, and because of the dependency, the overall
16	alpha expended would be .05.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Lloyd and Tom and
18	Dave, yes.
19	DR. FISHER: Yeah. Number one,
20	statisticians can't take into account the dependency
21	and adjust for that in an appropriate way. The
22	problem we have here is normally if someone moved to

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1	a composite endpoint, there is little expectation you
2	have enough deaths to pin things down. That probably
3	would have been your primary endpoint.
4	If that's the case, people often say, "Oh,
5	well, let's save a little alpha. For mortality we
6	don't expect to get it. We don't want to lose my
7	power, so we're going to put a very small amount on
8	it."
9	Here's something that had almost no power
LO	to start with, and you get a really small alpha. The
L1	power is just, you know, just down the tubes.
L2	So I think it makes sense not to allocate
L3	alpha, and as recent history showed, by and large, I
L 4	agree with Lem, but in that case it would take an
L5	extremely strong finding, in fact, a P less than
L6	.00125, which is somewhere else in these guidelines as
L7	I recall.
L8	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Actually the
19	guidelines just yeah. We'll talk about that later.
20	DR. FISHER: That's if it's a design
21	primary endpoint because you want to do with one trial
22	with an equivalent level of proof.

Another issue that comes up is if your trial is, let's say, at the .05 level or whatever level, if the combined endpoint is there, but not the serious irreversible part of the combined endpoint, then you can ethnically do more trials easily. So that there is a difference depending upon whether you just make your combined endpoint or whether you make both.

To me the much more interesting question which relates to partly what Rob brought up is you meet your combined endpoint, but there's a mild trend in the wrong direction for mortality, but you have enough hospitalizations, say, so that the composite endpoint is there. That to me brings up -- well, it mixes efficacy and safety, I guess -- but that brings up very difficult issues.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: You see, Lloyd, although I agree with what you said in terms of, gee, if they thought they were adequately powered for mortality, they would specify that as a primary, but not necessarily because it could be that a sponsor wants to put all of its resources into one trial

sufficient so that they will try to achieve an effect 1 2 that is .00125 on the primary. 3 Therefore, power -- put an enormous power 4 in the primary, but going for a conventional level of significance for mortality alone. Therefore, they're 5 actually doing a mortality trial, but specifying the 6 7 combined endpoint as the primary because the trial would be able to achieve a very persuasive effect on 8 9 the combined. 10 Right, and in that case --DR. FISHER: and let's say they met the .05. If you put it as a 11 12 secondary, normally we don't adjust because they already have a hurdle, but you don't penalize the 13 14 people for passing that hurdle. 15 In that case, if I were the agency, I would not let the people advertise mortality benefit, 16 17 but obviously the community would know it was there 18 and think it was likely. 19 DR. LIPICKY: Maybe I'm confused. 20 isn't a primary/secondary endpoint you're talking 21 You're talking about somebody specifies a 22 combined endpoint, and there is always a problem with

1	a combined endpoint in that there's more than one
2	thing that is represented.
3	DR. FISHER: Right. What I've been
4	talking about is the primary is the combined endpoint.
5	DR. LIPICKY: Oh, but it doesn't matter
6	whether it's primary or secondary. If one declares an
7	endpoint and invests all of the alpha of the trial in
8	that endpoint, it is primary.
9	DR. FISHER: Right.
10	DR. LIPICKY: If one has two endpoints,
11	whether one of them is in the combined or not, and
12	invests some alpha in a part of the combined endpoint,
13	they have two endpoints.
14	DR. FISHER: Two primary endpoints.
15	DR. LIPICKY: It doesn't matter whether
16	you call it primary or secondary.
17	DR. FISHER: Normally
18	DR. LIPICKY: The designation is
19	irrelevant I would assert.
20	DR. FISHER: Well, maybe we should stop
21	using the term "primary" and "secondary" and just talk
22	about whether
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1	DR. LIPICKY: I agree with
2	DR. FISHER: where we put our alpha.
3	DR. LIPICKY: I agree with that 100
4	percent.
5	DR. FISHER: But as far as I can tell, and
6	I don't know an exception, normally if something has
7	some alpha attached to it, it would be listed as a
8	primary endpoint.
9	DR. LIPICKY: Well, but that's just a
10	semantic thing. Conceptually I don't think it has any
11	merit.
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Lloyd, do you
13	want to oh, I'm sorry. Bob.
14	DR. TEMPLE: Well, there are other
15	arrangements. I associate these with Gary Cook, but
16	that's probably just me, where you say, "I have to win
17	on my primary endpoint and then I'm interested in
18	other things if I do," where I think you were just
19	addressing that case, where you actually don't pay any
20	price at all because it wouldn't stand on its own.
21	You don't get to look at the mortality until you win
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on the combined.

1	So that's sort of a different case, right.
2	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Lloyd, you
3	were going to bring up other issues.
4	DR. FISHER: No, I think Dave and Tom
5	were
6	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Oh, I'm sorry. Dave.
7	DR. DeMETS: Well, the reason I brought it
8	up is that the current document makes a passing
9	comment on the allocation of alpha, but isn't really
10	specific enough, I think, to guide us in what I think
11	is one of the more challenging issues at least in
12	heart failure trials.
13	What we have is this continuation of a
14	composite plus death as two outcomes, one primary and
15	one secondary. I think there are ways we can avoid
16	having to divide alpha by two. As I said, you take
17	into account the correlations.
18	But if you're not careful about this, you
19	get into some very awkward situations, especially for
20	monitoring trials and trying to come up with something
21	that's definitive and yet consistent.

Let me just raise another

DR. MASSIE:

variation because I think it's also becoming as common as this combined as the primary or as the major and the one component as the second part of the major, I guess, and which is really in -- maybe a best example might be an Australia-New Zealand type of carvatelol trial where because you want a large number of patients, you may use them to look at two points in time at two different, but potentially very related things.

You're going to want to look at six months to see how the patient is doing, a more symptomatic endpoint, but it might be a composite that include hospitalization and death as well, and then you want to look long term for mortality.

To me it's almost the same example as what we're talking about, except you're looking at two points in time, and I guess what I would toss out as a balloon is could you again, because of the correlation of the two endpoints, could you do the same type of arrangement? Assign your .05 to the six month look, and then two years later when you're looking at total mortality, which again probably makes

up a certain part of the early look if you specified it that way, have .01 as well or Lem was more generous. I think it was .035 and .03.

You know, it seems to me as long as you're doing something reasonable, it's probably -- if you put it in the protocol and it's reasonable and everybody agrees to that, you know, you have as good a bet at how to handle the correlation as any other mathematical formula.

DR. FISHER: Just a technical point. I don't agree that just because you put in the protocol and it seems reasonable to start with that you can do it that way. Once you have your data, there's something called the randomization test where you can adjust appropriately for the actual observed correlation so that if the data, in fact, were not correlated at all, you would pay an appropriate penalty.

So I don't think it's enough to say, "Well, we think this is going to be highly correlated. So this one is going to be .04 and this one is going to be .04."

1	DR. MASSIE: Okay. Yeah, I didn't know
2	that there was a good way to do it. If there's a good
3	way to do it
4	DR. FISHER: Yeah, you can actually adjust
5	for that appropriately once you have the ratio of how
6	you're going to spend your alpha.
7	DR. MASSIE: But if you had 20 percent of
8	one endpoint events are part of the other endpoint
9	events or something
10	DR. FISHER: Right, but there's a way of
11	adjusting that does preserve the Type 1 error rate and
12	sets it at the correct level.
13	DR. MASSIE: So is that another model that
14	one can follow?
15	DR. RODEN: How is that different from two
16	looks?
17	DR. MASSIE: They are different endpoints
18	because they're at a different point in time, and
19	maybe they have different components. The earlier one
20	might include well, just to give examples that we
21	know what happened death and hospitalization and
22	clinical status like is outlined in this protocol here

1	as early symptoms, and so everybody counts early.
2	DR. FLEMING: They're different types of
3	multiple testing. What you're referring to are two
4	different analyses at chronological periods of time.
5	What Barry's talking about are two different analyses
6	at different points past time zero, early treatment
7	effects after initiation of treatment versus
8	DR. FISHER: And different endpoints.
9	DR. FLEMING: later treatment effects
10	after initiation of treatment.
11	DR. TEMPLE: But in that case would you
12	have to win at the early look?
13	DR. MASSIE: Well, that's the question.
14	DR. FLEMING: It depends on what you
15	define your criterion to be.
16	DR. TEMPLE: If you did, if you had to win
17	in the early look, then you've got one of these
18	situations where you don't even get to the last one
19	unless you've won on the first. It might not have to
20	pay anything.
21	DR. FLEMING: Well, not only do you not
22	pay something. Essentially now you're having to hit

1	on two, and hence you're able to be less conservative
2	because you're having to hit on tow.
3	DR. FISHER: Well, now, if you're
4	that's a different statement. Whether you declare
5	success if you meet one of the two or whether you have
6	to hit two, and the procedures are different, but in
7	each case it can be adjusted for
8	DR. MASSIE: Well, if you have to hit
9	it's not an interesting question if you say you have
10	to hit two because then there's no question. The
11	question is what if you happen to only hit on the
12	early one but not the later or vice versa, but you
13	know, again, it's this concept of alpha allocation
14	with correlation between the two endpoints.
15	DR. FLEMING: All of these, everything
16	you're referring to are different variations to
17	multiple testing that can occur from multiple time
18	points on an endpoint, multiple endpoints, multiple
19	test statistics, subset analyses, secondary endpoints.
20	All of these things are multiple endpoints.
21	And what I would argue is the overall
22	assessment of efficacy requires a global evaluation of

all relevant data, and statistics and allocation of alpha is a very important guideline as you're making that assessment.

Defining what your primary endpoints are going to be, how they're going to be analyzed, how you're going to allocate alpha is all very important because statistics can provide a very important guide for whether or not we've hit our standard for strength of evidence.

But the ultimate assessment has to view this as a guide and go beyond that, heavily influenced but bringing guide, in all information. If we didn't do that, we wouldn't need committees advisory multi-disciplinary with representation. We'd only need a statistical quideline.

So judgment has to be brought in, and to answer your earlier question about this composite primary and survival secondary, I would argue that prudence would say you should allocate some alpha to that survival secondary endpoint, and the reason, even though I view that statistics is just a guide here, is

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1 ideally I would argue you should choose your primary endpoint on the hierarchy of endpoints as that that's 2 most clinically relevant to a patient, and often 3 that's mortality. 4 But if you really believe that 5 6 treatment is not going to positively or adversely 7 affect mortality, it's very reasonable to choose other composite endpoints. 8 9 If you decide to choose and allocate all 10 of your alpha to that primary endpoint, does that mean you can't look at mortality? I don't believe that's 11 12 true because mortality isn't just another data driven 13 endpoint. Mortality has always been and likely always 14 will remain an endpoint of particularly profound 15 relevance. 16 DR. MOYE: A surrogate endpoint just the same, of course. 17 18 (Laughter.) 19 DR. FLEMING: And so if that endpoint shows something that is different than the primary 20 endpoint, should that be factored in? 21 I believe 22 absolutely.

Does that violate your alpha? Not necessarily because I factor it in in cases where the primary is positive and the mortality isn't just as much as I do when the primary isn't positive and mortality is.

So, in other words, I've been in settings on monitoring boards and on advisory committees where we hit the primary endpoint, but mortality looked unfavorable. Do we approve? Do we stop early? No, we don't. So we're not using all of our alpha then, are we?

And as a result, just to finish this thought, if we don't hit the primary, but we get something profound on mortality, I view that, yes, there is room to consider that those data could be convincing. However, you pay a price. You pay a price because I believe that when you have not hit your primary and mortality, which is a very, very important nonprimary measure, is hit, you're going to have to hit it with much more convincing evidence than had you allocated some alpha.

So, for example, for example, if you put

.05 on your composite, you're probably going to have to hit mortality -- I'm just throwing a number out -- at .001, whereas if you had spent .04 on the primary and .01 on mortality, you would have a much easier chance to hit mortality.

So I believe even though in my view there are possible settings in which you could hit on a secondary endpoint to which you didn't allocate alpha, you have made the hurdle far higher, and if you really think mortality is a measure that's likely to be impacted in the scenario you created, I would allocate some alpha to mortality.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I think, Tom, what you're saying, you've actually directly addressed the question that I asked, which is that the passive allocation of alpha, that is, the allocation of alpha to mortality, that is not prespecified, but is implied because of its ultimate clinical relevance does not necessarily protect the sponsor's interest because the level of evidence that would be required for passive allocation, the non-prespecified, clinically driven allocation of alpha, the sponsor would have been, in

1	fact, better of designating their a priori slice of
2	the alpha than to have done it passively, which the
3	level of evidence would have to be far more
4	persuasive.
5	And, Lem, my sense is you do not disagree
6	with that.
7	DR. MOYE: That's right. If by "passive"
8	you mean post hoc
9	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Passive is
10	DR. MOYE: is that what you mean by
11	"passive"?
12	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Passive is non-
13	prespecified.
14	DR. MOYE: Okay. Then I agree with what
15	you said.
16	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's correct. A
17	bad term perhaps, but the concept is identical.
18	DR. MOYE: Right.
19	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Rob.
20	DR. CALIFF: I mean, my interpretation of
21	the strategy that you described is not to try to sneak
22	in the mortality claim when the primary endpoint goes

the wrong way, but more to say you think the probability of hitting the combined endpoint is greater, and if you hit that and you show a reduction in mortality, then you're in really good shape.

So rather than do it the other way around, where you've worried about the alpha sensitive person and you don't make the mortality endpoint, but you make the combined, then you're in trouble if you have an overly rigid interpretation being made.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Ray?

DR. LIPICKY: I just want to ask Tom a quick question. You mentioned some specific values, P values, that would convince you, so to speak, and for the nonspecified look at mortality, you happened to mention .001, and that would convince you.

Why didn't you choose ten to the minus thirteenth? I mean, what is it that got you to .001?

DR. FLEMING: I think I said when I threw that out that I'm throwing out something that gives a very general sense. It's a difficult issue to answer, and essentially in my view we are in a position to be guided by these statistical criteria, and these

1	criteria should be preserving the false positive error
2	rate, which is .025, and
3	DR. LIPICKY: Well, but where does that
4	come from?
5	DR. FLEMING: Where does that come from?
6	That comes from tradition. That comes from
7	essentially the tradition that has been established
8	for strength of evidence for a single trial. I'm
9	talking about a single trial
10	DR. LIPICKY: Right.
11	DR. FLEMING: to be viewed as
12	positive; that whether we use a one-sided .025 or a
13	two-sided .05, they share the same property. The
14	false positive error rate is two and a half percent.
15	DR. LIPICKY: So your expectation that
16	those levels of strength of evidence would be that the
17	trial should be repeated.
18	DR. FLEMING: Well, if you believe that
19	the global strength of evidence required for an
20	approval requires two adequate and well controlled
21	studies, each of which are positive at that single
22	grudy strength of evidence of 025 then you would

1	need two such studies.
2	DR. LIPICKY: Okay.
3	DR. FLEMING: Obviously there's a lot of
4	discussion ongoing, as you know better than I do
5	DR. LIPICKY: I understand.
6	DR. FLEMING: about whether we need two
7	studies or one study or what is the standard for
8	strength of evidence.
9	DR. LIPICKY: Right. I just wanted to get
10	a feeling for how I know the numbers were off the
11	top, and
12	DR. FLEMING: So I was throwing out a
13	number that was 25-fold smaller
14	DR. LIPICKY: Right.
15	DR. FLEMING: as off the top of my head,
16	and if this weren't mortality, I would throw out a
17	number smaller still, but mortality is a very
18	different and special type of endpoint, and again, I'm
19	comfortable with that because it's readily possible
20	that when you hit the primary and mortality is
21	unfavorable, that that recovers some of the alpha, and
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as I say, I've had a number of experiences where we

haven't viewed positively a result that hit the 1 primary because mortality was unfavorable. 2 DR. CALIFF: Can we address that? I mean, 3 I think as we look more closely in a variety of 4 that involve patients with heart 5 circumstances failure, we're going to see composite endpoints that 6 7 go in the right direction and mortality trending the wrong direction. 8 There's one coming up next week in Devices 9 actually, which is going to be very interesting to see 10 how it's handled. How do we put that in perspective 11 and deal with it? 12 DR. FLEMING: And what I was referring to, 13 Rob, in my example was a setting where mortality -- we 14 profoundly hit the primary endpoint, but mortality was 15 increased by 40 percent. So a clear-cut example of 16 where net gain was not there. 17 In a setting where you hit your primary 18 endpoint and there is a small trend against mortality, 19 but by no means in any way conclusive, and other 20 safety parameters secondary measures and are 21

favorable, I'm inclined to expect that globally that

could still be an approval. I'm not suggesting any 1 time that you have numerically more deaths in the 2 3 intervention arm than the control arm that that's a 4 nonapprovable agent. I was referring rather to the 5 fact that you can hit a primary and have a 6 sufficiently unfavorable effect on mortality that you would view the data to no longer be convincingly 7 positive. 8 9 DR. LIPICKY: That really isn't statistical question, right? I mean that's a value 10 judgment question. 11 DR. FISHER: But it is partly statistical. 12 13 I mean, number one, it depends on how strong the trend is. When I write papers, I tell my co-authors they're 14 allowed to call a trend if the P value is greater than 15 16 .05 and less than .1. Otherwise we should just really -- a very low key thing. 17 So I don't know what the strength of this 18 trend is. You probably have a very wide confidence 19 interval typically, and you also have to take this 20 theoretical down side versus what's hopefully a 21

demonstrated up side and evaluate somehow what you

1	think is going to happen to the risk-benefit ratio.
2	I mean if the device is doing really
3	wonderful things in some sense and there's a very
4	small number of deaths, although maybe the relative
5	risk looks bad, but you think it's a small absolute
6	number, I mean, all of these things have to be taken
7	into account.
8	DR. LIPICKY: But you can't offer strength
9	of evidence for the risk-benefit judgment to be made.
10	I mean, how do you do that?
11	DR. CALIFF: Well, can't you construct a
12	probability that I hate to sound Bayesian here
13	but at least in some sense the probability that by
14	looking at the confidence intervals or something, that
15	mortality is within a certain range?
16	DR. LIPICKY: Well, they can do that, but
17	you still have to make the value judgment, right?
18	DR. CALIFF: But that's always true.
19	DR. LIPICKY: If you're willing to accept
20	a threefold increase in mortality, then you accept a
21	threefold increase in mortality.
22	DR. CALIFF: Right.

1	DR. LIPICKY: If you're only willing to
2	accept a 20 percent increase in mortality and the 95
3	percent confidence limit says it can be 300, you would
4	say no. That would be your value judgment.
5	DR. CALIFF: I guess what I hear, I'm
6	worried a little bit about what you said, Lloyd, that
7	if you study few enough patients who die, that the P
8	value is greater than .10 for mortality, that you
9	should just disregard even a threefold increase.
10	DR. FISHER: No, I didn't say that. I was
11	bringing it up because you said a trend, and I had no
12	idea what you meant by that. You know, you might have
13	had one death, you know, in the device group and zero
14	in the control, and 10,000 patients were studied for
15	all I know.
16	Well, that's an estimated infinite
17	relative risk, but if there was tremendous gain within
18	these 10,000, then I would suggest you say that there
19	might be a slight increase in mortality. The event
20	rate is very low.
21	On the other hand, if there were a large
22	number of deaths so, I mean, I would need more

information before I could deliver a judgment, and this is, I think, what Ray meant when he said it's not a statistical problem, and to me it's certainly not purely a statistical problem, but statistics does enter into it.

anyone actually directly address the issue that Ray brought up. Just suppose you have a clinical trial with a drug, and this gets, I think, to the heart of what Rob and Tom -- I think you were trying to get by the, quote, recovery of alpha, which we'll try not to have you explain.

But if you had a drug that made people feel better, let's just say it was unequivocal and persuasive, and that 80 percent of the people who got the drug felt better versus ten percent on placebo, and let's just say there was just no doubt about it.

And let's assume that, for example, the sponsor evaluated a low risk patient population, and at the end of the assessment there were eight deaths in active treatment group and two on placebo or eight and one. Make any ratio you want, but keep the

1	numbers small so that the data can be misleading. So
2	eight and one if you want.
3	Now, if you do symptom free survival, that
4	doesn't deal with the issue because so many more
5	people are getting relief of symptoms than having
6	events.
7	Eight to one might get people's attention
8	and may or may not reach nominal levels of
9	significance, but would cause people's eyebrows to go
10	up a little bit.
11	How do you deal with that? Because I
12	mean, you can make the eight to one anything you want,
13	but what I'm talking about is a nondefinitive, but
14	worrisome difference.
15	DR. LIPICKY: But I would assert that that
16	is not a statistical problem.
17	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: That's right. It's
18	not.
19	DR. LIPICKY: That is a value judgment
20	problem.
21	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Right, but you can't
22	recover alpha to solve that problem.

1	DR. FLEMING: I don't want to get
2	sidetracked on recovering alpha. This is a separate
3	issue. The recovering alpha came up in the example I
4	gave where you had 40 percent excess deaths when
5	deaths occurred as frequently as your primary
6	endpoint.
7	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: I see. Okay, fine.
8	DR. FLEMING: So this is a separate issue,
9	and I don't know if Lloyd or Bob has a comment about
10	it.
11	DR. FISHER: I think the problem you're
12	addressing is a really important generic issue for the
13	FDA. I personally have seen it five or six times
14	actually during the past year, and what's harder is
15	not so much eight to one, but it's six to four.
16	So you can look at it one way and say,
17	"Ah-ha, it looks like we have a 50 percent increase."
18	You look at it the other way and you say, "We just
19	switch one number and things are equal."
20	Given the sample size, it could readily be
21	but, you know, if it were 50 percent, it would be
22	important. I mean, you know, what do you do?

1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: What do you do, Bob?
2	DR. TEMPLE: Well, it depends a little.
3	I mean if this were just a symptomatic treatment and
4	you didn't even expect it to alter the natural
5	history, six to four is one of the most likely
6	distributions in either direction you're going to
7	have. It doesn't mean a thing.
8	Eight to one gets more interesting, and
9	the fortunate thing is that doesn't happen that often
10	because if it did you'd be nervous.
11	But you know, you do large numbers of
12	trials and every once in a while bad events are going
13	to go eight to one the wrong way. So that's a very
14	hard problem.
15	We'd probably say you have to do more.
16	You have to study it further, and we'd have our hearts
17	in our throats, and we'd feel bad about it, but we
18	wouldn't know what else to do.
19	DR. LIPICKY: Right. At the last meeting,
20	I believe, that everyone finally said that if you know
21	for sure people feel better, it's okay to have some
22	small risk of excess mortality.

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1	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: But you've also
2	reminded us that you don't know if it's small until
3	you study it.
4	DR. LIPICKY: Well, that's a correct
5	statement.
6	CHAIRPERSON PACKER: And that's where the
7	dilemma is.
8	DR. LIPICKY: But, you know, this would
9	take hours and hours, but life is uncertain, and
10	there's a certain element of uncertainty that one has
11	to, I think, accept even at the end of a complete drug
12	development program.
13	DR. DiMARCO: It's also a question of
14	relative risk and absolute risk. If that eight to one
15	is in a 100,000 patient trial, that's not too bad. If
16	it's in a 100 patient trial, it's pretty bad.
17	DR. TEMPLE: That's true.
18	DR. FISHER: But if it's OTC for headache,
19	it might be bad.
20	DR. LIPICKY: So it might be a statistical
21	issue.
22	DR. TEMPLE: You'll never know.

1 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Bob. DR. TEMPLE: Actually I wanted to go back 2 to another question that Ray asked before, which is 3 the .001 for mortality. I just want to throw 4 something out, and you can all tell me it's whacko. 5 I would argue that it may be that in any 6 trial where you're testing that .05, you might want to 7 8 say I want to reserve .001 for mortality just in case. So you'd really be testing, assuming appropriate 9 adjustments at .049 over time, which is so close to 10 .05 it doesn't really matter, and you'd be explicitly 11 12 reserving a little piece for a winner on mortality 13 because that's sort of what we do anyway. Is that a reasonable way to think about 14 15 it? actually did 16 DR. DeMETS: We One, just saying suppose you had .05. 17 simulation. How much could you inflate Type 1 error by some 18 Not much is the answer. criterion? 19 So the other thing that we do, the other 20 reserves is .048 or .047, .045, whatever you want, and 21 leave a little bit for mortality. You can also do 22

1 that in certain conditions, that is, if conditions --2 if you fail in the primary, which is the only time you 3 really push hard for this anyway probably; you fail in 4 your primary. You go to the secondary. You go to 5 You can do that and things come out. 6 DR. TEMPLE: Well, it might be that when 7 one designed a trial with a combined endpoint, 8 something like that, one would say, "Oh, and by the 9 way, I'm reserving .01 for the mortality winner. 10 don't expect it, but you never know." DR. FLEMING: 11 I would accept that. The 12 worst case scenario is .051, and I'm arguing based on 13 what I was saying before it probably still isn't .051. It's probably still .05 because there are situations 14 that go in the reverse direction. 15 16 But to follow up on Milt's earlier example 17 though, as a result, you're paying a price. Yes, mortality is on the board. You can use it at .001, 18 but you could have used it at .01 if you had allocated 19 20 some alpha to it in your alpha spending. 21 And so if you really expect that this is

an important measure that truly could be sensitive to

treatment effect, and obviously it would be highly 1 clinically relevant, you're prudent to not have to 2 rely on getting a .001. 3 Getting an .001 on mortality is not easy 4 in a study where mortality events are not common 5 because you have to have an observed relative risk 6 that's really striking, and if you could have gotten 7 by with only a .01 hurdle, you'd have been far better 8 off. 9 I would just mention one DR. FISHER: 10 The probability of it being slight technical thing. 11 between .049 and .05 is not .001. It is under the 12 null hypothesis, but you think you have something that 13 works, and you shift over and it's greater than that, 14 and it would be interesting to see, but it's not 15 phenomenally rare actually that things just sneak 16 under the line. 17 I mean I don't know how often I've seen 18 that in my career, but a number of times, and when 19 that happens to you --20 I think that's a really DR. CALIFF: 21 important observation because if you have a treatment 22

that probably does work, you're operating in a range
where there's a pretty good chance you're going to be
right about there if you size your study right.
DR. TEMPLE: But the fact is we don't
distinguish between .049 and .050 and .051. We call
them all the same thing.
DR. FISHER: Well, you may not, but Dr.
Moye does at least sometimes, and I've seen this
committee do things like that.
(Laughter.)
DR. TEMPLE: And besides, if you do some
slightly different analysis, you can make it go either
way.
DR. FISHER: Pardon me, Lem, if I'm off
base. Correct me.
CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Let me just make sure
that I understand the full implications. If we
reserve .01 or .001 alpha for mortality in a trial in
which the primary endpoint is symptoms, and let's say
it's done for six months, and let's assume it's not a
Class 4 patient population; I just want to make sure

that I understand.

1	If one were to do that and assign .001,
2	just you know, let's say every protocol from now on
3	just routinely assigns .001 alpha just so that when
4	you hit mortality you'll get credit for mortality; to
5	me it sounds a little Mickey Mouse because you might
6	actually hit that once in a blue moon, but the number
7	of events is going to be very small.
8	DR. FISHER: Could I make a crazier
9	suggestion than Bob's? If we want to do this, let's
10	change our significance level to, say, .0501 routinely
11	and say the .0001 has to be allocated to mortality.
12	After all, the .05 is extremely arbitrary
13	anyway.
14	DR. CALIFF: I mean, also I just want to
15	register my clinician's concern here. I mean, my
16	relatively lay interpretation of .001, Tom, is that
17	that means and, Lem, is that that means that basically
18	there's less than a one in 1,000 chance that a result
19	at that level or something more extreme could have
20	occurred by chance alone.
21	DR. FLEMING: If this were the only

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analysis being done.

1	DR. CALIFF: If this were the only
2	analysis being done, and we're in a little bit of
3	Never Never Land, but, you know, at some point you
4	have to ask the question: when am I going to ask the
5	next patient to take placebo?
6	And somehow it's just hard to accept that
7	this is a purely mathematical issue.
8	DR. TEMPLE: That's a slightly rigorous
9	way of saying what you're saying in the first place.
.0	What it says is death is always interesting if there's
.1	an extreme result, and this is just nominally taking
L2	care of building it into the analysis.
L3	DR. CALIFF: But I
L4	DR. TEMPLE: It actually does nothing to
L5	the analysis to speak of.
16	DR. CALIFF: I guess I'm saying that a .01
17	for mortality, even if it wasn't looked for, to me
18	would be pretty
19	DR. DeMETS: I mean the numbers are being
20	thrown out off the top of the head. We can get much
21	more exact about what it would take and be much more
22	precise doing things through simulation, but more

importantly is the idea, the concept. 1 DR. CALIFF: 2 Okay. CHAIRPERSON PACKER: 3 DR. LIPICKY: Nothing. 4 CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. Let me suggest 5 that we try to bring this discussion towards a close, 6 and in doing that, let me just summarize a few final 7 8 comments. There is nothing, I think, particularly 9 controversial around in Section No. 6, which is 10 safety, which we will not be discussing in detail 11 12 today. Section 7 contains specific and general 13 principles about approvable indications. Let me state 14 that although we were going to spend some time today 15 on that, clearly we don't have the time to do that, 16 but you will notice that the approvable indications 17 are now focused on the patient populations described 18 earlier in the guidelines, that is, the hospitalized 19 patients with symptoms at rest, the ambulatory 20 patients with symptoms on effort, and the ambulatory 21

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patients with no symptoms.

And in each one of those patient cohorts, one can either give the treatment short or long term.

The route of administration may be oral or intravenous, and the therapeutic goal may be symptoms or outcomes.

And the purpose, the document takes the position that you can have short or long term goals in the hospitalized patient, which you clearly can have, and your development program should, in fact, be tailored to whether you are requesting a short or a long term indication, and that could be achieved for -- if you want a long term indication, that could be done for an intravenous drug as well as for an oral drug.

Section 7.2.1 summarizes the overall guidelines for approval for short term use for hospitalized patients, and I don't think anyone will find anything unusual in that. That's pretty consistent with all discussions that have taken place to date and, I think, does not require any specific comment.

And the same applies to 7.3.

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DR. MASSIE: I think the one point that might deserve comment is the number of patients exposed.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Yes. I wanted to get to that in one second.

The same thing applies to 7.3 and 7.4.

Let me say one thing about what all of these have in common. Each of them has a statement or a paragraph that "the benefits of treatment should be the persuasive fashion. This demonstrated in generally requires the benefit be demonstrated in at least two adequate and well controlled trials in which a favorable effect is shown at conventional levels of Alternatively, if the nature of the significance. benefit is of critical importance to the patient, for example, a reduction in major events, demonstration of benefit in one trial may be adequate for approval if the evidence is persuasive. This generally means that (1) the level of significance in the one trial is comparable to that that would be achieved in two trials with similar findings; that the data within the trial are reasonably complete and of high quality; and

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(3) that the results are internally consistent and the effects of the drug are still evidence when the data are subject to alternate but appropriate approaches to analysis."

All of this is simply to say that the data needs to be robust. They need to be persuasive. They need to be internally consistent, and that if one is going to look at one trial, that the level of persuasiveness would need to be comparable to that would normally be achieved at nominal levels, conventional levels of significance if one had two trials.

And this is consistent with all of the decisions and discussions that have taken place in the Advisory Committee for the last several years.

The number of patients that are specified in each of these sections is arbitrary and has not been subject to extensive discussion and should not be viewed as being absolute in any sense, but I think that it would be appropriate to say that the data should be of sufficient size that one can address both the efficacy and safety of a drug and assess the risk

to benefit relation.

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And that might vary according to the severity of the disease and the duration of therapy being proposed.

And having said that, there is a feeling some members ofthe committee and among consultants that sponsors might be advised to collect data in a larger number of patients than they have conventionally done in the past not so much to address the issue of whether the drug works, but to address issues that have arisen in recent applications, including the possibility of differential effects based on baseline demographs, and also the need to adequately describe the use of the drug in patients concomitantly getting drugs which would be administered, and Rob mentioned earlier the example with mebefrodil. This generally requires a larger patient experience than has been evaluated in the past.

The concluding comments are philosophically important. These are guidelines. They are designed at the present time based on the

present state of knowledge. These will change certainly, and it is really important to emphasize that the most important characteristic of any application that is likely to be approved is the internal consistency of the data and the degree to which the data are persuasive and, in fact, do not raise additional issues that need to be addressed.

And none of that can be described in detail in any guideline document. That's a philosophical point of view that requires interpretation as well as judgment.

Rob?

DR. CALIFF: At the risk of being like the guy at the end of the psychiatry session who brings up an issue, it seems to me that we ought to have some consideration of whether we're pricing heart failure drug development out of the market.

That is, you know, for example, in a related cardiovascular -- in another condition related to cardiovascular disease, I actually was astounded to hear that the FDA advised the company not to study patients with serious cardiovascular disease because

1 patients may die, and it would raise questions, and, therefore, they would have to do larger studies that 2 3 would prolong the duration for waiting for approval. So if we continue to raise the bar on this 4 5 panel and other areas of the FDA lower the bar, are we 6 really doing a favor to the public health of 7 cardiovascular patients? Because we may be shifting the investment of therapeutic development away from 8 heart failure into other areas. 9 DR. MASSIE: I'm surprised to hear you say 10 that because you're the one that says that you can't 11 judge about safety in populations without large 12 13 amounts of exposure. DR. CALIFF: I mean I'm obviously asking 14 the question out of some internal anxiety. I think 15 16 we're doing the right thing for patients by doing this, but the other side is an ugly and difficult 17 issue that I think we at least should consider. 18 DR. MASSIE: But I guess part of the issue 19 is what type of exposure, and particularly in the 20 acute therapy range where this means multifold 21 increase historically. 22

I think it does serve a purpose, but I think it's mostly open label, compassionate use types of exposure that begin to get you some of the hints that you might find out in post marketing issues later, that you can't expect 1,500 patients actively exposed in placebo controlled trials. That's going to break everybody's back.

But, on the other hand, why you finish your placebo controlled trials to keep on exposing people, you know, to your drug versus dobutamine or whatever it may be seems to me to be a valuable exercise where you may be able to get a hint of things like drug interactions that you might not have thought about, and that's not so expensive.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: bob.

DR. TEMPLE: There are a lot of things that aren't necessarily expensive. It depends a lot on what you do.

I think the suggested 1,000 to 1,400 patients for acute use is a very substantial increase compared to the past, but the past was a long time ago. So it might be reasonable and it might not, but

one thing to think about is simplifying even there the data collection instrument and not asking for so many things.

I mean I think what you're interested in there is whether people feel better because you can show that with a small number of patients. You're interested in survival effects where we really have very little information, and that's susceptible to large, simple methodologies which have never been applied in that setting, but probably should be.

But I guess I want to echo what Rob says.

All of this guidance has to strike some balance
between asking for more of what you want and not
stifling development, and it's a very hard question,
and I, too, was interested to hear that coming from
Rob who has, I think been pushing in another direction
in previous ones, all very good questions.

DR. CALIFF: Let me clarify. I think my preferred position is not only more patients and about a tenth as much data on each patient, as you said, would solve this problem, but it seems like the amount of data in the trials that we're involved with is

headed in precisely the opposite direction because of continued misunderstanding at some level between --

DR. TEMPLE: Well, we need a systematic look at that. We're actually getting more and more. This is not a systematic survey, but we're getting more and more inquiries into do we really need to have to collect all of this stuff in those studies.

And I can't tell you how the patterns that exist now arose. We have no policy on this, no written guidance. It's just reflex, and it's susceptible to change and alteration, and it needs to be done.

DR. LIPICKY: But I don't see that the implementation, that is, the studies that would conform with these guidelines, is part of the guidelines, not that the question that's being asked isn't important, but if, in fact, one thinks the things that are in this guideline as content are, in fact, relevant to appropriate development in the area, then to do something less because it would cost less I don't see as being necessarily a service to the community or patients because then drugs that don't

work or that are very adverse without anyone knowing them will be on the market. That's doing no one a favor.

So the question is: how could one implement this set of guidelines in some heuristic plan and cut costs? That's an independent question from the things that are being asked for in the guideline, and I don't think they should be confused.

I don't know what the right answer is.

DR. FISHER: I think there's tremendous room -- I started saying this a long time ago about NIH trials. There seem to be the belief however you design your protocol, you collect everything on everybody, and that just does not have to be so.

I mean, you know, if we want to go for certain biochemical measurements or are looking for certain hormones and you start to imbed it in a large trial, why not take a random sample where you expect relatively small numbers if you have some strong relationship?

And my guess is that virtually every sponsor in the audience and the world, for that

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1 matter, if the FDA is open to those approaches and, 2 you know, happy to discuss them, would head off that 3 way. 4 DR. TEMPLE: But we are known to be open 5 to them because it comes up in this meeting repeatedly 6 and people have asked us about it, and, you know, there are a lot of trials with more intense sub-7 8 studies going on. That's a model that has been used 9 repeatedly. 10 DR. FISHER: But normally they add more 11 intense studies on top of something. I'm talking 12 about here's where we want to start, and we say, 13 "Well, gee, do we really need all of this on every patient?" 14 All I can say is in a two 15 DR. TEMPLE: 16 year study there's nothing written about what you have to collect every week or every month or every six 17 That's all discussable and negotiable, and 18 19 there have been trials in which a single sheet has been the data collection sheet, and we've relied on 20 them. 21

So there really shouldn't be any doubt

that this is a discussion point that's suitable. 1 2 DR. THADANI: Even in a short term study, 3 you don't need Swans on everybody, you know, because 4 it says you do 1,000 patients. Everybody doesn't have You could look at, you know, blood 5 to be tubed. 6 pressure, heart rate, and symptomatic improvement. 7 The patient leaves the hospital better. And if you need a lot of 8 DR. TEMPLE: 9 people for rare events, you don't necessarily have to 10 study everything in all those people to get the more 11 common events. There's a lot of ways to design these 12 things. The other thing, as Ray was saying, we do 13 14 have to be sure you have everything that you really need, but sometimes it's helpful to look at the past 15 and see how much you regret it. 16 And if you're making a change, it's worth 17 looking at how dissatisfied you are with what you've 18 19 had up to now and, you know, see how urgent the need for much, much greater data is, and we should do that 20 as we look at this. 21

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Any final comments?

If not --

DR. THADANI: You know, one other question comes up. Sometimes the drugs have study on hemodynamics. Patients are admitted and say hemodynamics improved, but they're not really sick enough.

So I just want to echo that these patients for the short term are really sick patients who need hospitalization, are not admitted for the sake of the studies.

Sometimes we say, "Okay. We're going to study 300 patients, and if the hemodynamics go in the right way, the patient improves somewhat, but he was only Class 2 and 3." They really do not apply those data to the patients who are in Class 4 failure.

CHAIRPERSON PACKER: Okay. If not, I'd like to thank all of our consultants, all of whom played a real important role in today's meeting.

And I thank all of the members of the Advisory Committee, and we are adjourned until tomorrow morning.

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(Whereupon, at 5:13 p.m., the meeting was adjourned, to reconvene on Friday, October 23, 1998.)

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the foregoing transcript in the

matter of:

86TH MEETING

Before:

CARDIOVASCULAR AND RENAL DRUGS

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Date:

OCTOBER 22, 1998

Place:

BETHESDA, MARYLAND

represents the full and complete proceedings of the aforementioned matter, as reported and reduced to typewriting.

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